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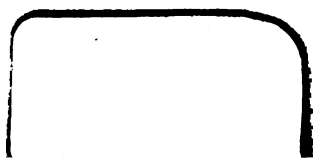
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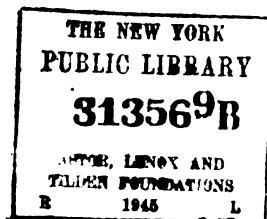
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People's

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VOL. I



Hunting a Zebra.

HUNTING THE ZEBRA.

There are but three animals of the horse kind. The horse, which is the most stately and courageous; the ass which is the most patient and humble; and the zebra, which is the most beautiful, but at the same time, the wildest animal in nature. Nothing can exceed the delicate regularity of this creature's color, or the lustrous smoothness of its skin; but on the other hand, nothing can be more timid or more untameable.

It is chiefly a native of the southern parts of Africa; and there are whole herds of them often seen feeding in those extensive plains that lie towards the Cape of Good Hope. However, their watchfulness is such, that they will suffer nothing to come near them, and their swiftness so great, that they readily leave every pursuer far behind. The Zebra in shape rather resembles the mule, than the horse or the ass. It is rather less than the former, and yet larger than the latter. Its ears are not so long as those of the ass, and yet not so small as in the horse kind. Like the ass, its head is large, its back straight, its legs finely placed, and its tail tufted at the end; like the horse its skin is smooth and close, and its hind quarters round and fleshy. But its greatest beauty lies in the amazing regularity and elegance of its colors. In the male, they are white and brown; in the female, white and black. These colors are disposed in alternate stripes over the whole body, and with such exactness and symmetry, that one would think Nature had employed the rule and compass to paint them. These stripes which like so many ribands, are laid all over its body, are

narrow, parallel, and exactly separated from each other. It is not here as in other partly coloured animals, where the tints are blended into each other; every-stripe here is perfectly distinct, and preserves its color round the body or the limb, without any diminution. In this manner are the head, the body, the thighs, the legs, and even the tail and the ears, beautifully streaked, so that at a little distance one would be apt to suppose that the animal was dressed out by art, and not thus admirably adorned by nature.

In the male zebra, the head is striped with fine bands of black and white, which in a manner centre in the forehead. The ears are variegated with a white and dusky brown. The neck has broad stripes of the same dark brown running round it, leaving narrow white stripes between.

M. Le Vaillant having fallen in with a herd of these animals during his second journey in Africa, thus describes his pursuit of one:—"A female alone, either less frightened, or too much fatigued to ascend the height, quitted the herd, and continued her course through the valley. Hitherto I had kept in my dogs, though with difficulty; but when the animal was near enough to afford a chase, I slipped them, and they soon came up with her: Jager, particularly, was so near, that from time to time, he fixed his teeth in her legs and thighs; and, as he was the stoutest and strongest of my pack, at every bite he brought away flesh or skin. Young Vander, Westhuysen, and I, pursued the chase on horseback, followed by my Hottentots on foot. At length we surrounded the animal; and, throwing rope with a slip knot over her, terminated the chase."

LIFE AND TRAVELS OF JOHN LEDYARD.

LEDYARD was an American. He was born at Groton, in Connecticut, in 1751. He was first designed for the law, a study which did not suit his romantic turn of mind; secondly, for a missionary among the Indians, which proved as uncongenial to his habits and dispositions. While prosecuting his theological studies at College, to relieve the tedium of the chapel and the lecture-rooms, he introduced the acting of plays, occasionally performing himself in a long gray beard. The missionary scheme was soon abandoned, and he made his escape from college in a canoe which he hollowed from the trunk of a tree; sailing alone, and dressed in a bear-skin, he reached home after performing a voyage of 140 miles on a dangerous river. His next profession was that of a common sailor on board a vessel bound for Gibraltar. Having heard his grandfather speak of some wealthy relation in England, he resolved on a journey to London; and accordingly setting out from New York, he was landed at Plymouth without a shilling or a single acquaintance. In company with an Irishman as thoughtless and poor as himself, and agreeing to take their turns in begging along the road, he reached London, where he discovered the house of his rich relation. His story, however, was discredited, and himself treated as an impostor, which roused his indignation to such a pitch that he abruptly left the house, resolved never to return. Upon further inquiry his friend became satisfied of the truth of the connexion, and sent Ledyard a kind invitation, which he haughtily declined. He even rejected a sum of money which his relation, on hearing of his distressed situation, had sent; desiring the servant to tell his master that he belonged not to the race of the Ledyards. His next function was that of a corporal of marines, on board the ship of Captain Cook, then preparing for his third and last voyage round the world; in which capacity he made the tour of the globe. He was present at Cook's death, and published a short narrative of the voyage. From a marine he was next converted into a fur-merchant, having his head full of romantic projects about a trading voyage to Nootka Sound. His main difficulty was in procuring a ship. He applied to various individuals in New York and Philadelphia, but all he got was a promise. Finding himself disappointed, and cursing the lack of enterprise among his own countrymen, he resolved to try his fortune in Europe. He visited Cadiz, Brest, L'Orient, and Paris, with no better success. At Paris he got acquainted with Paul Jones, an adventurer as enthusiastic as himself, and with Sir James Hall, who generously gave him fifteen guineas, as he was now reduced to a sort of wandering vagabond, without employment, motive, or means of support. His next plan was a journey, by land, through the northern regions of Europe and Asia, then to cross Behring's Straits to the continent of America. While waiting for the permission of the Empress of Russia, he received an invitation to London from Sir James Hall, who had procured him a free passage in an English ship, bound for the Pacific Ocean, and permission to be put on shore at any spot he chose on the north-west coast. Sir James, moreover, gave him twenty guineas, with which Ledyard "bought two great dogs, an Indian pipe, and a hatchet," the only companions of his journey. The happy moment seemed now arrived when he was to open to his blinded countrymen the path to unbounded wealth:

but, on reaching Deptford, the vessel was seized by a custom house officer, brought back, and exchequered. This was a severe blow, but Ledyard was never without a resource: "I shall make the tour of the globe, (says he,) from London eastward, on foot." A subscription was raised by Sir Joseph Banks, Sir James Hall, and others, by which means he got over to Hamburgh, which he reached, he tells us, "in perfect health, and with ten guineas exactly," with which he had to traverse the vast continents of Europe and Asia. His ten guineas, however, were otherwise disposed of. His host, at the tavern where he lodged, having informed him that a Major Langhorn, an American officer, and "a very good kind of man," had left Hamburgh for Copenhagen, "with only one spare shirt, and very few other articles of clothing," Ledyard concluded that the man must necessarily be in distress; and, moreover, that a person in this situation was just suited to be the companion of his travels. The sympathy was irresistible. "I shall fly to him, (says he,) and lay my little all at his feet." Accordingly, though it was the dead of winter, and Copenhagen several hundred miles out of his way, he set out on this charitable expedition. After a tedious journey through Sweden and Finland, he reached the Danish capital, and discovered his countryman, the Major, shut up in his room, where he had been some time detained in captivity for want of money and a clean shirt. Ledyard's countenance glowed with joy as he disbursed the remains of his ten guineas into the palm of this needy adventurer. After staying a fortnight, he propounded to his friend the other grand object of his visit, viz. that the Major should accompany him to St. Petersburg. The proposition met with an abrupt refusal. "No," was the reply; "I esteem you, but no man on earth shall travel with me the way I do." This dissolved the intended association; and Ledyard, having parted with his friend and his last shilling, set out alone for the Russian capital. The passage by sea being impracticable, he was obliged to perform a journey of twelve hundred miles, round the Gulf of Bothnia, which, in a direct line, did not exceed fifty. We cannot here follow him in his route from St. Petersburg across the regions of snow and desolation which he traversed on his way to Okotsk. After many hardships and delays, he reached Irkutsk, where he was apprehended as a French spy, and put under arrest by an order from the Empress. Accompanied by a guard of soldiers, he was conveyed back to the frontiers of Poland, a distance of six thousand versts, in six weeks! "Thank Heaven!" he exclaimed, as he approached the boundaries of civilized Europe, "petticoats appear, and the glimmerings of other features." Here the soldiers set him at liberty, giving him to understand that he might go where he pleased, only if he again returned to the dominions of the Empress, he would certainly be hanged. He contrived, by drawing on his friends, to reach London, where he was introduced to Mr. Beaufoy, Secretary to the African Association. In a short time he set out on a mission of discovery to that ill-fated country; and was among the first that fell a victim to the cause of African Geography. His plan was to proceed up the Nile as far as Senaar, and from thence to strike across the African continent to the coast of the Atlantic. He died, however, at Cairo, of a billious complaint, about the end of November, 1788, in the thirty-eighth year of his age.



Driving Wild Cattle in the Maremma.

DRIVING WILD CATTLE.

There is a tract of country in the south-western part of Italy, which is called the Maremma. It is a flat, unhealthy region, particularly during the summer months, when all the inhabitants, who are able, remove from the place. There are no cottages or gardens to be seen scattered over the land; but here and there a dark, dismal-looking castle appears, which seems only to make the solitude more dreary.

The only stationary population in the Maremma consists of the cow and buffalo-keepers, and the forest rangers. The former are always mounted on horseback and armed with a lance, with which they keep in order the wild cows and fierce bulls, which are let to roam about these solitudes. These keepers lead a life of freedom and independence, like that of the Arabs of the desert. They are paid by yearly wages, besides which they generally rear up cattle of their own, which are allowed to feed with the rest.

These people retire in the summer months to the shady forests which line the seashore, and where the air is not so unwholesome as in the open plains. There, also, criminals escaped from the pursuits of justice take shelter, and are sometimes employed as wood rangers or buffalo drivers by the people of the neighboring farms. The above cut represents the mode of driving cattle to the towns. The animals are often so unruly, that their drivers are obliged to prick them with sharp-pointed lances, in order to keep them in subjection.

EXTRAORDINARY PRESERVATION OF LIFE UNDER SNOW.

The following event, which occurred during the remarkably hard winter of 1708-9, is recorded on the most unquestionable authority. A poor woman in Somersetshire, England, having been to a neighboring village to sell her yarn, in her return home fell so very ill that she was forced to take refuge in a small house by the way-side, and it being towards evening, she desired the people that they would let her sit by the fire during the night. This was denied. She left the house, and feeling very ill, laid herself down under a hedge. It snowed very hard; and in a little time she was almost covered by it. At last one of her neighbors came by, who asked her how she could be so mad as to

lie there to be starved. She said her sickness was so violent she could not possibly go further. He then took her up, and bade her try as well as she could, adding, it was not so very far for her to go. She followed him a little way, but unable to persevere, she left him, and laid herself down under the hedge again. She was soon covered with the snow, which was falling very thick. Thus she continued for nearly a week, her neighbors, meanwhile, making great inquiries after her: but no one could give any account except that one man; and he kept silent for fear of a suspicion falling upon him that he had made away with her.

During this surprise, a poor woman dreamed, (or rather pretended to have dreamed, the man having, probably, suggested to her this expedient to save his conscience and his neck,) that she lay under a hedge in such a place. Her neighbours immediately went to the place with sticks, which they forced through the snow; at last one of them thought he heard a groan: upon which he thrust his stick down with more force, which made the woman cry out, "Oh, for God's sake don't kill me." She was taken out, to the astonishment of them all; and was found to have taken great part of her upper garment for sustenance. She told them she had lain very warm, and had slept most part of the time. One of her legs lay just under a bush, so that it was not quite covered with snow, by which it became almost mortified, but (says the contemporary narrator) it is like to do very well. She was very cheerful, and soon walked. She lay under the hedge at least seven days.

In February, 1799, a similar imprisonment in the snow, but attended, ultimately, with more fatal consequences, was the lot of Elizabeth Woodcock, aged 42, between Impington and Cambridge. She was riding from market, when her horse, frightened by a meteor, started; and, running backward, approached the brink of a ditch. She dismounted, and the horse ran from her. She overtook him, and continued leading him, till worn down with fatigue, and under the load of a heavy basket full of her marketings, she addressed the horse: "Tinker, I am too tired to go any further, you must go home without me."

She sat herself down, and was soon covered with snow. Here, in a sort of cavern she was buried alive for eight days. On the morning after her first enclosure, she contrived to break off a stick

from the hedge, and tying her handkerchief to it, she thrust it through an opening in the snow. She was certainly sensible all the time, and overheard the conversation of some gypsies, but although she cried as loud as she could, they did not (as they declared) hear her. On the second Sunday, Joseph Muncey, a farmer, on his way home from Cambridge, was drawn to the place by the appearance of the handkerchief, and discovering who it was, went for help. A shepherd who came, said, "Are you there, Elizabeth Woodcock?" She replied, in a feeble, faint voice, "Dear John Stittle, I know your voice, for God's sake help me out." Stittle made his way through the snow; she eagerly grasped his hand and said, "I have been here a long time." "Yes," answered he, "since Saturday." "Ay, Saturday week," she replied, "I have heard the bells go two Sundays for church."

She was then taken home, and a most fatal treatment was she subjected to. They gave her strong liquors, and applied poultices of stale beer and oatmeal boiled together. The direct contrary to which, under Providence, would have restored her. She lost her toes; and lingered on till the following July, when she died.

The following remarks deserve the serious attention of every one:—they appear to be founded on the soundest principles. "The application of heat to the human body, after intense cold, is attended with the most dreadful consequences; it always produces extreme pain, and, most frequently, either partial or general mortification of the parts to which the heat is applied. Instead, therefore, of allowing persons who have thus suffered from frost or snow to come near a fire, let the limbs be rubbed well with snow, or, if snow cannot be procured, let them be put into cold water, and afterwards rubbed with flannel for a considerable time. Let the person be kept most cautiously from taking too much or too nutritious food. Spirits also, or wine, should, under no pretence whatever, be given, without being weakened very much with water. Great attention must be paid to the state of the bowels. The use of opium and camphor is much to be recommended, though at first the opium should be given in very small portions.

THE WILD BUSHMAN.

The Bushmen appear to be the remains of Hottentot hordes, originally subsisting, like all the aboriginal tribes of Southern Africa, chiefly by rearing cattle; but who have been driven, chiefly by the gradual encroachments of the European colonists, to seek for refuge among the inaccessible rocks and sterile deserts of the interior. Most of the hordes known in the colony by the name of Bushmen are now entirely destitute of flocks or herds, and subsist partly by the chase, partly on the wild roots of the wilderness, and, in times of scarcity, on reptiles, grasshoppers, and the larvæ of ants, or by plundering their hereditary foes and oppressors, the frontier boors. In seasons when every green herb is devoured by swarms of locusts, and the wild game, in consequence, desert the pastures of the wilderness, the Bushman finds a resource in the very calamity which would overwhelm an agricultural or civilized community. He lives by devouring the devourers; he subsists for weeks and months on locusts alone, and also preserves a stock of this food dried, as we do herrings or pilchards, for future consumption.

The Bushman retains the ancient arms of the Hottentot race; namely, a javelin, or assagai, similar to that of the Caffers, and a bow and arrows.



The latter, which are his principal weapons, both for war and the chase, are small in size and formed of slight materials; but, owing to the deadly poison with which the arrows are imbued, and the dexterity with which they are launched, they are missiles truly formidable both to man and beast. One of these arrows, formed merely of a piece of slender reed tipped with bone or iron, is sufficient to destroy the most powerful animal. Nevertheless, although the colonists very much dread the effects of the Bushman's arrow, they know how to elude its range; and it is, after all, but a very unequal match for the firelock, as the persecuted natives, by sad experience, have found. The arrows are usually kept in a quiver formed of the hollow stalk of a species of aloe, and slung over the shoulder; but a few, for immediate use, are often stuck in a band round the head, in the manner represented in the cut.

INFIDELITY.

BY THE LATE ROBERT C. SANDS.

Thou who scornest truths divine,
Say what joy, what hope is thine?
Is thy soul from sorrow free?
Is this world enough for thee?
No; for care corrodes thy heart.
Art thou willing to depart?
No; thy nature bids thee shrink
From the void abyss's brink.
Thou mayst laugh, in broad sunshine;
Scoff, when sparkles the red wine;
Thou must tremble, when deep night
Shuts the pageants from thy sight.
Morning comes, and thou blasphemest;
Yet another day thou deemest
Thine; but soon its light will wane;
Then thy warning comes again.
There's a morrow with no night—
Broad and blazing, endless light!
Should its dawn thy dreams o'ertake,
Better thou didst never wake!



Canal at Little Falls, Mohawk River.

CANALS OF NEW YORK.

New York surpasses every state in the Union for canals. The great Erie and Hudson Canal, from Albany to Buffalo was begun in 1817, and finished in 1825, at the cost of above 9 millions of dollars. It is 363 miles long, 40 feet wide and four feet deep. Beginning at Albany on the Hudson, it passes up the west bank of the river nearly to the mouth of the Mohawk; thence along the Mohawk to Schenectady, crossing the river twice by aqueducts. From Schenectady, it follows the southern bank of the Mohawk to Rome, approaching so near the river in some places, as to require embankments to support it; one of these at Amsterdam village is 5 or 6 miles in length. What is called the *Long Level*, or a distance of 69½ miles without any intervening lock, begins at Frankfort, 3 miles east of Utica, and terminates near Syracuse. From this place, the canal proceeds 35 miles to Montezuma, on the eastern border of the Cayuga marshes; these are three miles in extent. From hence to the great embankment which is 72 feet high, and nearly two miles in length, is a distance of 52 miles. Eight miles farther begins the Genesee level, which extends west to Lockport 65 miles; 7 miles from this place to Pendleton village, the canal enters Tonawanta Creek, which it follows 12 miles, and then passing up the east shore of Niagara river, joins Lake Erie at Buffalo.

In the whole length of the canal, are 83 locks and 18 aqueducts. The locks are built in the most durable manner, of stone laid in water-lime, and are each 90 feet long and 15 wide. Lake Erie is 565 feet above the Hudson at Albany, and the whole rise and fall of lockage on the canal is 688 feet. One of the aqueducts crosses the Genesee river at Rochester, and is 804 feet in length. Another aqueduct crosses the Mohawk at Little Falls, on three arches of 50 and 70 feet span; two others cross the same river, one 748 feet and the other

1188 feet in length. The sides of the canal are sometimes paved with stone, and sometimes covered with thick grass to hinder the soil from washing away. A tow path four feet above the surface of the water, and 10 feet wide, runs the whole length of the canal. A number of side cuts branch off from the canal to different places; one of these, from Syracuse to Oswego, is 38 miles long; another from Montezuma to Cayuga and Seneca Lake, 20 miles.

The canal boats for the conveyance of passengers, are generally 80 feet in length, and 14 in width, drawing from one to two feet of water. The cabin occupies nearly the whole length of the deck, and is 8 feet in height, with single berths on each side for 30 persons. They are drawn by three horses, and proceed day and night four miles an hour; relays are furnished every 8 or 10 miles. Boats with merchandise go about 55 miles in 24 hours; the passage boats make, including delays, 85 miles progress in the same time. The navigation upon this great canal is prodigious, and the work does honor to the sagacity and enterprise of those who planned it. The number of canal boats that arrived at, and departed from Albany, during 1830, was 12,830, conveying more than 100,000 tons of merchandise paying toll by weight, besides an immense amount of lumber, wood, &c. The tolls in the same year amounted to 954,328 dollars.

The Northern Canal joins the waters of Lake Champlain with those of the Hudson; it is 63 miles long, and cost 875,000 dollars.

The Delaware and Hudson Canal was begun in 1825, and completed in 1828; it is 108 miles long, and extends from the tide water on the Hudson to port Jervis on the Delaware; thence up the Delaware and Lackawaxen rivers in Pennsylvania, to Honesdale. A rail road extends the communication from the canal to the Lackawanna valley.—*Goodrich's Universal Geography.*

SCENES AMONG THE INDIANS.

The following description is from a work entitled, "Adventures on the Columbia River, &c. By Ross Cox." It furnishes a forcible example of the effects of intoxication. The author states that there are three descriptions of men in the service of the Fur Company. First come the white Canadians; and, secondly, the half-breeds, which race is now numerous throughout the Indian country.

"The third description of men in the Company's service are the Iroquois, Nipisings, and others of the native tribes of Canada. These Indians have been all nearly reclaimed from their original state of barbarism, and now profess the Roman Catholic religion. They engage for limited periods in the Company's service as canoe-men and hunters, but on lower terms than are usually allowed to the French Canadians. They are strong, able-bodied men, good hunters, and well acquainted with the management of canoes. They are immoderately attached to the use of ardent spirits; are rather quarrelsome, revengeful, and sometimes insubordinate; and during their periods of intoxication the utmost prudence and firmness are necessary to check their ferocious propensities, and confine them within proper bounds. They are generally employed on the east side of the mountains, but we had a few of them on the Columbia. One, named George Teewhattahownie, was a powerful man about six feet high. On one occasion, during our voyage to the sea, we had a stiff breeze, and George, who was foreman of my canoe, kept up a heavy press of sail. I requested him repeatedly to take in a reef, and pointed out the danger to which we were exposed in the event of an accident. He appeared to pay no attention to my request, and I was at length obliged to use peremptory and threatening language, which produced a forced and sulky obedience. A few days after our arrival at Fort George he came into my room in a state of intoxication, and ungovernable rage, with a vessel containing rum in his left hand, and in his right his hunting-knife; in short, his whole appearance was wild and savage, and I at once guessed his visit was not of a friendly nature. His opening speech realized my suspicions."

"'Cox, you toad, prepare for death! you abused me, and I must have my revenge.'

"'You're not sober, George; go sleep awhile, and we'll talk on this subject to-morrow.'

"'No; you insulted me before the men, and I must have satisfaction; but as you're a young man, I will now only take one of your ears!'

"I became a little easy on finding he had lowered his demands; but as I had an equal affection for both lugs, and as 'the prejudice ran in favor of two,' I had no wish, like Jack Absolute, to affect singularity in that respect. After some further parley, and finding he was determined to try his knife on my auricular cartilages, I told him to retire, or I should be obliged to order him into confinement. 'Ha! crapaud!' said he, 'do you threaten Teewhattahownie?' and at the same instant he rushed on me like a grisly bear. I was now forced to draw my dagger in self-defence, and in parrying off his thrust gave him a severe wound across the fingers of the right hand. He dropped the knife, but instantly seized it with the left hand, and at the same time attempted to catch me, which I avoided by running under his arm, and as he turned round was compelled to give him a severe

cut, which nearly laid open one side of his head. He now became quite furious, roared like a buffalo, and with the blood streaming down his face appeared more like a demon than a human being. I thought to fly, but in the attempt he seized the skirt of my coat, and I was obliged once more to give him another wound across the left hand, which obliged him to drop the knife; a desperate struggle then followed for the dagger, which, from his great strength, he must have wrested from me, had not the noise occasioned by his bellowing, and my cries for assistance, brought Mr. Montour and some of the men into the room. With much difficulty they succeeded in binding him hand and foot, and lodging him in the guard-room. He tore off the dressings that were applied to his wounds, refused every assistance, and the greater part of the night was spent in wild yells and ferocious threats against me. Nature at last became exhausted, and he fell asleep, in which state his wounds were dressed. None of them were dangerous. Between the loss of blood and a long fast he became quite cool on the following day, and when told of what had occurred he could scarcely believe it, cursed the rum as the cause, and made a solemn promise never again to drink to intoxication. At the end of a couple of days I interceded and had him liberated. He appeared most grateful, acknowledged that he deserved what he got, expressed his surprise that I did not kill him, and declared if he ever heard a man say a bad word of me for wounding him he would knock him down. I believe his regret was sincere, and from that period until the following year, when I quitted the Columbia, I never saw him in a state of inebriety."

A FEARFUL ADVENTURE.

The fierce brigands of Calabria are notorious for the audacity of their deeds. Desirous of a little more accurate information on the character of the outlaws of this part of Italy, we turned to the letters of Paul Louis Courier, whose works are little known in this country. Our readers may be interested by the following little story, which we translate for their edification. The author is writing to his female cousin.

"I was one day travelling in Calabria. It is a country of wicked people, who, I believe, have no great liking to any body, and are particularly ill-disposed towards the French. To tell you why would be a long affair. It is enough that they hate us to death, and that the unhappy being who should chance to fall into their hands would not pass his time in the most agreeable manner. I had for my companion a fine young fellow. I do not say this to interest you—but because it is the truth. In these mountains the roads are precipices, and our horses got on with the greatest difficulty. My comrade going first, a track, which appeared to him more practicable and shorter than the regular path, led us astray. It was my fault. Ought I to have trusted to a head of twenty years? We sought our way out of the wood while it was yet light; but the more we looked for the path the farther we were off it. It was a very black night, when we came close upon a very black house. We went in, and not without suspicion. But what was to be done? There we found a whole family of charcoal burners at table. At the first word they invited us to join them. My young man did not stop for much ceremony. In a minute or two we were eat-

ung and drinking in right earnest—he at least—for my own part I could not help glancing about at the place and the people. Our hosts, indeed, looked like charcoal burners;—but the house!—you would have taken it for an arsenal. There was nothing to be seen but muskets, pistols, sabres, knives, cutlasses. Every thing displeased me, and I saw that I was in no favor myself. My comrade, on the contrary, was soon one of the family. He laughed, he chatted with them; and with an imprudence which I ought to have prevented, he at once said where we came from, where we were going, that we were Frenchmen. Think of our situation. Here we were amongst our mortal enemies, alone, benighted, far from all human aid. That nothing might be omitted that could tend to destroy us, he must play the rich man forsooth, promising these folks to pay them well for their hospitality; and then he must prate about his portmanteau, earnestly beseeching them to take great care of it, and put it at the head of his bed, for he wanted no other pillow. Ah, youth, youth, how you are to be pitied. Cousin, they might have thought we carried the diamonds of the crown: the treasure in his portmanteau which gave him such anxiety consisted of the letters of his mistress.

“Supper ended, they left us. Our hosts slept below; we on the story where we had been eating. In a sort of platform raised seven or eight feet, where we were to mount by a ladder, was the bed that awaited us—a nest into which we had to introduce ourselves, by jumping over barrels filled with provisions for all the year. My comrade seized upon the bed above, and was soon fast asleep, with his head upon the precious portmanteau. I was determined to keep awake, so I made a good fire, and sat myself down. The night was almost passed over tranquilly enough, and I was beginning to be comfortable, when, just at the time when it appeared to me that day was about to break, I heard our host and his wife talking and disputing below me:—and putting my ear into the chimney which communicated with the lower room, I perfectly distinguished these exact words of the husband:—‘*Well, well, let us see:—must we kill them both?*’ To which the wife replied, ‘*Yes,*’—and I heard no more.

“How shall I tell you the rest? I could scarcely breathe; my whole body was as cold as marble; to have seen me, you could not have told whether I was dead or alive. Heavens! when I yet think upon it! We two were almost without arms;—against us were twelve or fifteen who had plenty of weapons. And then my comrade dead of sleep and fatigue! To call him up, to make a noise, was more than I dared;—to escape alone was an impossibility. The window was not very high—but under it were two great dogs howling like wolves. Imagine if you can the distress I was in. At the end of a quarter of an hour, which seemed an age, I heard some one on the staircase, and through the chink of the door I saw the old man, with a lamp in one hand and one of his great knives in the other. He mounted, his wife after him; I was behind the door. He opened it; but before he came in he put down the lamp, which his wife took up, and coming in, with his feet naked, she being behind him said in a smothered voice, hiding the light partially with her fingers, *Gently, go gently.* When he reached the ladder he mounted, his knife between his teeth; and going to the head of the bed where that poor young man lay, with his throat uncovered, with one hand he took his knife, and with

the other—ah, my cousin—he seized a ham which hung from the roof, cut a slice, and retired as he had come in. The door is re-shut, the light vanishes, and I am left alone to my reflections.

“When the day appeared, all the family with a great noise came to rouse us, as we had desired. They brought us plenty to eat—they served us a very proper breakfast, a capital breakfast, I assure you. Two capons formed part of it, of which, said the hostess, you must eat one, and carry away the other. When I saw the capons I at once comprehended the meaning of those terrible words—*Must we kill them both?*”

KENTUCKY SPORTS.

We have individuals in Kentucky, kind reader, that even there are considered wonderful adepts in the management of the rifle. To *drive a nail* is a common feat, not more thought of by the Kentuckians than to cut off a wild turkey's head, at a distance of a hundred yards. Others will *bark off* squirrels one after another, until satisfied with the number procured. Some, less intent on destroying game, may be seen under night *snuffing a candle* at the distance of fifty yards off-hand, without extinguishing it. I have been told that some have proved so expert and cool as to make choice of the eye of a foe at a wonderful distance, boasting beforehand of the sureness of their piece, which has afterwards been fully proved when the enemy's head has been examined!

Having resided some years in Kentucky, and having more than once been witness of rifle sport, I shall present you with the results of my observation, leaving you to judge how far rifle-shooting is understood in that State.

Several individuals who conceive themselves expert in the management of the gun are often seen to meet for the purpose of displaying their skill; and betting a trifling sum, put up a target, in the centre of which a common-sized nail is hammered for about two-thirds of its length. The marksmen make choice of what they consider a proper distance, which may be forty paces. Each man cleans the interior of his tube, which is called *wiping* it, places a ball in the palm of his hand, pouring as much powder from his horn upon it as will cover it. This quantity is supposed to be sufficient for any distance within a hundred yards. A shot which comes very close to the nail is considered as that of an indifferent marksman; the bending of the nail is, of course, somewhat better; but nothing less than hitting it right on the head is satisfactory. Well, kind reader, one out of the three shots generally hits the nail; and should the shooters amount to half a dozen, two nails are frequently needed before each can have a shot. Those who drive the nail have a further trial amongst themselves, and the two best shots out of these generally settle the affair, when all the sportsmen adjourn to some house, and spend an hour or two in friendly intercourse, appointing, before they part, a day for another trial. This is technically termed *Driving the Nail*.

Barking off squirrels is delightful sport, and in my opinion requires a greater degree of accuracy than any other. I first witnessed this manner of procuring squirrels, whilst near the town of Frankfort. The performer was the celebrated Daniel Boon. We walked out together, and followed the rocky margins of the Kentucky river, until we

reached a piece of flat land thickly covered with black walnuts, oaks, and hickories. As the general mast was a good one that year, squirrels were seen gamboling on every tree around us. My companion, a stout, hale, and athletic man, dressed in a homespun hunting shirt, bare-legged, and moccasined, carried a long and heavy rifle, which, as he was loading it, he said had proved efficient in all his former undertakings, and which he hoped would not fail on this occasion, as he felt proud to show me his skill. The gun was wiped, the powder measured, the ball patched with six-hundred-thread linen, and the charge sent home with a hickory rod. We moved not a step from the place, for the squirrels were so numerous that it was unnecessary to go after them. Boon pointed to one of these animals which had observed us, and was crouched on a branch about fifty paces distant, and bade me mark well where the ball should hit. He raised his piece gradually until the head (that being the name given by the Kentuckians to the sight) of the barrel was brought to a line with the spot which he intended to hit. The whip-like report resounded through the woods and along the hills, in repeated echoes. Judge of my surprise when I perceived that the ball had hit the piece of the bark immediately beneath the squirrel, and shivered it into splinters, the concussion produced by which had killed the animal and sent it whirling through the air, as if it had been blown up by the explosion of a powder magazine. Boon kept up his firing, and, before many hours had elapsed, we had procured as many squirrels as we wished; for you must know, kind reader, that to load a rifle requires only a moment, and that if it is wiped once after each shot, it will do duty for hours. Since that first interview with our veteran Boon, I have seen many other individuals perform the same feat.

The snuffing of a candle with a ball, I first had an opportunity of seeing near the banks of Green River, not far from a large pigeon-roost, to which I had previously made a visit. I heard many reports of guns during the early part of a dark night, and knowing them to be those of rifles, I went towards the spot to ascertain the cause. On reaching the place, I was welcomed by a dozen of tall stout men, who told me they were exercising for the purpose of enabling them to shoot under night at the reflected light from the eyes of a deer or wolf, by torch-light. A fire was blazing near, the smoke of which rose curling among the thick foliage of the trees. At a distance which rendered it scarcely distinguishable, stood a burning candle, as if intended for an offering to the goddess of night, but which in reality was only fifty yards from the spot on which we all stood. One man was within a few yards of it, to watch the effect of the shots, as well as to light the candle, should it chance to go out, or to replace it should the shot cut it across. Each marksman shot in his turn. Some never hit either the snuff or the candle, and were congratulated with a loud laugh; while others actually snuffed the candle without putting it out, and were recompensed for their dexterity with numerous hurrahs. One of them, who was particularly expert, was very fortunate, and snuffed the candle three times out of seven, whilst all the other shots either put out the candle, or cut it immediately under the light.

Of the feats performed by the Kentuckians with the rifle, I could say more than might be expedient on the present occasion. In every thinly peopled portion of the state, it is rare to meet one without a

gun of that description, as well as a tomahawk. By way of recreation, they often cut off a piece of the bark of a tree, make a target of it, using a little powder wetted with water or saliva, for the bull's eye, and shoot into the mark all the balls they have about them, picking them out of the wood again.—*Audubon's Ornithological Biography.*

Ten rules to be observed in Practical Life.—The following rules were given by the late Mr. Jefferson, in a letter of advice to his namesake, Thomas Jefferson Smith, in 1825:—

1. Never put off till to-morrow what you can do to-day
2. Never trouble others for what you can do yourself.
3. Never spend your money before you have it.
4. Never buy what you do not want because it is cheap.
5. Pride costs us more than hunger, thirst, and cold.
6. We never repent of having eaten too little.
7. Nothing is troublesome that we do willingly.
8. How much pains have those evils cost us which never happened.
9. Take things always by their smooth handle.
10. When angry, count ten before you speak,—if very angry, a hundred.

Navigation of the Mississippi.—The first steam vessel which sailed on this mighty stream was in 1810, and the enterprise was considered extraordinary. In 1826 the steam navigation of the Mississippi had so improved in respect to facility and quickness, that fifty-one boats, of 23,916 tons, were employed. Since 1826 the amount has been prodigiously increased, and the number of flat-boats and keels is beyond calculation.

Courts of Justice among Crows.—Those extraordinary assemblies, which may be called crow-courts, are observed in the Feroe Islands, as well as in the Scotch Isles; they collect in great numbers as if they had been all summoned for the occasion. A few of the flock sit with drooping heads; others seem as grave as if they were judges, and some are exceedingly active and noisy, like lawyers and witnesses: in the course of about an hour the company generally disperse, and it is not uncommon, after they have flown away, to find one or two left dead on the spot. Dr. Edmonstone, in his view of the Shetland Islands, says that sometimes the crow-court, or meeting, does not appear to be complete before the expiration of a day or two, crows coming from all quarters to the session. As soon as they are all arrived, a very general noise ensues, the business of the court is opened, and shortly after, they all fall upon one or two individual crows (who are supposed to have been condemned by their peers) and put them to death. When the execution is over, they quietly disperse.

The corner stone of a monument to be erected in Philadelphia in honor of Washington was laid on the 22d of February with appropriate ceremonies.

The census of Missouri, as recently taken by authority of the State, presents an aggregate of 176,276 souls, of whom 32,184 are slaves. The number of white males, we observe, exceeds that of the white females, by nearly nine thousand souls.

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MOUNTAIN TRAVELLING IN SOUTH AMERICA.

Travellers in Europe, even those who may have passed over the Pyrenees or Alps, can have but a faint idea of the labor and danger of crossing the Andes, that immense mountain-chain by which the continent of South America is intersected, from its southern to its most northern extremity, dividing Peru and Chile, on the western Coasts, from Colombia and Brazil, on the eastern. Many of the Passes are upwards of 18,000 feet, or nearly four miles, in perpendicular height, above the level of the sea. In some parts men, who have made it their sole occupation, carry the passenger up the most steep and dangerous paths, in a kind of chair fastened to their backs; but in general, the journey is made by travellers mounted on that patient and sure-footed animal, the mule.

The above engraving is from a print in the *Travels* of Colonel Hamilton, who, in 1823, visited South America, as chief commissioner from the king of Great Britain to the republic of Colombia. It represents a perilous situation common to the traveller in these terrific regions, when his safety depends wholly on the sure-footedness of his mule. In the Pass along which the traveller is proceeding, the road is separated by a chasm, several feet in width, which forms the mouth of a yawning gulf, some hundreds of feet in depth. The sagacity shown by the mules in leaping these dangerous openings, which are of common occurrence, is a subject of admiration among all travellers who have visited these regions. In some places, and

it is necessary to make the descent of immense heights; an undertaking of great danger, from their excessive steepness, and the slippery state of the mule-track. "On these occasions, the mules," says Colonel Hamilton, "take every precaution, and seem to know the danger they incur; for they inspect the road narrowly before them, and then place their fore-legs close together, and slide down on their hams in a manner which scarcely any one but an eye-witness would credit."

Major Head, in his *Rough Notes of a Journey across the Pampas*, gives the following animated picture of the preparation of a train of baggage-mules for a journey over these dangerous Passes; and of some of the casualties common to these perilous journeys. "Anxious to be off" says he, "I ordered the mules to be saddled; as soon as this was done, the baggage-mules were ordered to be got ready. Every article of baggage was brought into the yard, and divided into six parcels (the number of the baggage-mules), quite different from each other in weight and bulk, but adapted to the strength of the different mules.

"The operation of loading then began. The peon (the driver) first caught a great brown mule with his lasso,* and then put a poncho (a large shawl in which the natives dress) over his eyes, and

* The Lasso is a long leathern thong, used by the hunters and drivers of South America in catching wild animals. An account of this singular practice will be given in a future number.

tied it under his throat, leaving the animal's nose and mouth uncovered. The mule stood still, while the captain and peon first put on the large straw pack-saddle, which they girthed to him, in such a manner that nothing could move it. The articles were then placed, one by one, on each side, and bound together, with a force and ingenuity against which it was hopeless for the mule to contend.

"I could not help pitying the poor animal, on seeing him thus prepared for carrying a heavy load, such a wearisome distance, and over such lofty mountains as the Andes; yet, it is truly amusing to watch the nose and mouth of a mule when his eyes are blinded, and his ears pressed down upon his neck in the poncho. Every movement which is made about him, either to arrange his saddle or his load, is resented by a curl of his nose and upper-lip, which, in ten thousand wrinkles, is expressive beyond description, of every thing that is vicious and spiteful: he appears to be planning all sorts of petty schemes of revenge, and as soon as the poncho is taken off, generally begins to put some of them into execution, either by running, with his load, against some other mule, or by kicking him. However, as soon as he finds that his burden is not to be got rid of, he dismisses, or perhaps conceals his resentment, and instantly assumes a look of patience and resignation."

* * * * *

"As I was looking up at the region of snow, and as my mule was scrambling along the steep side of the rock, the captain overtook me, and asked me if I chose to come on, as he was going to look at a very dangerous part of the road, which we were approaching, to see if it was passable, before the mules came to it. In half an hour we arrived at the spot. It is the worst Pass in the whole road over the Cordillera Mountains. The mountain above appears almost perpendicular, and in one continued slope down to a rapid torrent that is raging underneath. The surface is covered with loose earth and stones, which have been brought down by the waters. The path goes across this slope, and is very bad for about seventy yards, being only a few inches broad; but the point of danger is a spot, where the water, which comes down from the top of the mountain, either washes the path away, or covers it over with loose stones. In some places, the rock almost touches one's shoulder, while the precipice is immediately under the opposite foot, and high above head, are a number of loose stones, which appear as if the slightest touch would send them rolling into the torrent beneath, which is foaming and running with great violence. As soon as we had crossed the Pass, which is only seventy yards long, the captain told me it was a very bad place for baggage-mules; that four hundred had been lost there; and that we should probably also lose one. He said, that he could get down to the water at a place about a hundred yards off, and wait there with his lasso, to catch any mule that might fall into the torrent; and he requested me to lead on his mule. However, I resolved to see the tumble, if there was to be one, so the captain took away my mule and his own, and while I stood on a projecting rock, at the end of the Pass, he scrambled down on foot, till he got to the level of the water.

"The drove of mules now came in sight, one following another: a few were carrying no burdens, but the rest were either mounted or heavily laden. As soon as the leading mule came to the commence-

ment of the Pass, he stopped, evidently unwilling to proceed, and of course all the rest stopped also.

"He was the finest mule we had, and, on that account, had twice as much to carry as any of the others. With his nose to the ground, literally smelling his way, he walked gently on, often changing the position of his feet, if he found the ground would not bear, until he came to the bad part of the Pass, when he stopped; but the peons threw stones at him, and he continued his path in safety, and several others followed.

"At length, a young mule, carrying a portmanteau, with two large sacks of provisions, and many other things, in passing the bad point, struck his load against the rock, which knocked his two hind-legs over the precipice, and the loose stones immediately began to roll away from under them: however, his fore-legs were still upon the narrow path: he had no room to put his head there, but he placed his nose on the path to his left, and appeared to hold on by his mouth: his perilous fate was soon decided by a loose mule, who, in walking along after him, knocked his comrade's nose off the path, destroyed his balance, and head over heels the poor creature instantly commenced a fall, which was really quite terrific. With all his baggage firmly lashed to him, he rolled down the steep slope, until he came to the part which was perpendicular, and then he seemed to bound off, and turning round in the air, fell into the deep torrent, on his back, and upon his baggage, and instantly disappeared." To any other animal but a mule, this fall must have been fatal; he was carried down by the stream in spite of all his efforts, and, turning the corner of a rock, was given up for lost. "At length," the author continues, "I saw at a distance a solitary mule walking towards us! We instantly perceived that he was the Phaëton whose fall we had just witnessed, and in a few moments he came up to us to join his comrades. He was, of course, dripping wet, his eye looked dull, and his whole countenance was dejected, but none of his bones were broken: he was very little cut, and the bulletin of his health was altogether incredible."

PROPERTIES OF THE SUGAR-CANE.

Dutrone calls sugar the most perfect alimentary substance in nature, and the testimony of many physicians establishes the fact. Dr. Rush, of Philadelphia, says, in common with all who have analyzed it, that "sugar affords the greatest quantity of matter of any subject in nature." Used alone, it has fattened horses and cattle in St. Domingo for a period of several months, during the time when the exportation of sugar and the importation of grain were suspended from the want of ships. The plentiful use of sugar in diet is one of the best preventives that ever has been discovered of the diseases which are produced by worms. Nature seems to have implanted a love for this aliment in all children, as if it were on purpose to defend them from those diseases. Sir John Pringle tells us, that the plague has never been known to visit any country where sugar composes a material part of the diet of the inhabitants. Dr. Rush, Dr. Cullen, and many other physicians, are of opinion, that the frequency of malignant fevers of all kinds has been lessened by the use of sugar. Dr. Rush observes, that, in disorders of the breast, sugar is the basis of many agreeable remedies, and it is useful in weaknesses and acrid defluxions in other parts of the body. The

celebrated Honchin recommends "*Eau Sucré*" for almost every malady. Dr. Fothergill was very anxious that the price of sugar should be sufficiently moderate, to render it accessible to the mass of the people. From experiments made by some eminent French surgeons, it appears to be an antiscorbutic; and this is confirmed by well known facts. A writer from India observes, "The comfort and health arising to a poor family from a small patch of sugar-cane, exclusive of what the jaggy may sell for, can only be known to such as may have observed them in the time of cutting the canes, and noted the difference of their looks before the crop begins, and a month or six weeks after."

The Cochín Chinese consume a great quantity of sugar; they eat it generally with their rice, which is the ordinary breakfast of people of all ages and stations. There is little else to be obtained in all the inns of the country but rice and sugar; it is the common nourishment of travellers. The Cochín Chinese not only preserve in sugar all their fruits, but even the greater part of their leguminous vegetables, gourds, cucumbers, radishes, artichokes, the grain of the lotus, and the thick fleshy leaves of the aloe. They fancy nothing is so nourishing as sugar. This opinion of its fattening properties has occasioned a whimsical law. The body-guard of the king, selected for the purposes of pomp and show, are allowed a sum of money with which they must buy sugar and sugar-cane, and they are compelled by law to eat a certain quantity daily. This is to preserve the *embonpoint* and good looks of those soldiers who are honored by approaching so near the person of the king; and they certainly do honor to their master by their handsome appearance. Domestic animals, horses, buffaloes, elephants, are all fattened with sugar-cane in Cochín China. Sugar has been found to be an antidote to the poison of verdigris, if taken speedily and in abundance; and unlike many other organic substances, its nutritious qualities are not liable to change, from the operations of time or season.

THE DRAGON-TREE OF OROTAVA.



Near the town of Orotava, in the island of Tenerife, there is an enormous many-headed palm of the species called the Dragon-Tree (in French, *Dragonnier*), which has been described by the

scientific traveller Humboldt, and more recently by Maria Graham. This tree is situated in the garden of M. Franqui. There are existing documents, which show that the trunk of this tree had attained its present vast size in the fifteenth century. Its height is about 60 feet; its circumference near the root is 48 feet. At the height of ten feet above the soil, Sir George Staunton ascertained that its diameter was 12 feet. The trunk divides into a great number of branches which rise in the form of a candelabra, each of which is terminated by a bunch of leaves. It still bears flowers and fruit. Humboldt has given, in the *Atlas* to his large work, a plate from a drawing of this palm, taken in 1776;—the above wood-cut is copied from a sketch in Maria Graham's "*Journal of a Voyage to Brazil*," made after one-half of the crown of the tree had fallen in 1819. This remarkable tree is considered by Humboldt to be one of the oldest inhabitants of this globe. The species is of very slow growth; and it is judged that a thousand years must have elapsed before this specimen had attained maturity.

Wolves.—The following narration may have before met the eyes of many of our readers: it is certainly of a nature not to be easily forgotten. We may premise that in Russia, during a severe winter, the wolves are often induced by hunger to prowl around the city of St. Petersburg in search of food. Travellers from St. Petersburg to Cronstadt, a distance of about twenty miles, have often been attacked by these animals. The circumstance related below was told to Mr. Lloyd by a gentleman of rank at St. Petersburg; it occurred in Russia not many years ago.—A woman, accompanied by three of her children, were one day in a sledge, when they were pursued by a number of wolves. On this, she put the horse into a gallop, and drove towards her home, from which she was not far distant, with all possible speed. All, however, would not avail, for the ferocious animals gained upon her, and at last were on the point of rushing on the sledge. For the preservation of her own life and that of the remaining children, the poor frantic creature now took one of her babes and cast it a prey to her blood-thirsty pursuers. This stopped their career for a moment; but, after devouring the little innocent, they renewed the pursuit, and a second time came up with the vehicle. The mother, driven to desperation, resorted to the same horrible expedient, and threw her ferocious assailants another of her offspring. To cut short this melancholy story, her third child was sacrificed in a similar manner. Soon after this, the wretched being, whose feelings may more easily be conceived than described, reached her home in safety. Here she related what had happened, and endeavored to palliate her own conduct, by describing the dreadful alternative to which she had been reduced. A peasant, however, who was among the bystanders, and heard the recital, took up an axe, and with one blow cleft her skull in two; saying, at the same time, that a mother who could thus sacrifice her children for the preservation of her own life, was no longer fit to live. This man was committed to prison, but the Emperor subsequently gave him a pardon.

Persian account of the origin of Wine.—Jerusheed, the founder of Persepolis, is by Persian writers said to have been the first who invented wine. He was immoderately fond of grapes, and desiring to preserve some, they were placed for this purpose in a large vessel, and lodged in a vault for future use. When the vessel was opened, the grapes had fermented and their juice in this state was so acid that the king believed it must be poisonous. He had some vessels filled with it; "*poison*" was written upon each and they were placed in his room.

It happened that one of his favorite ladies was affected with a nervous headache, and the pain distracted her so much that she desired death. Observing a vessel with "*poison*" written on it, she took it and swallowed its contents. The wine, for such it had become, overpowered the lady, who fell into a sound sleep and awoke much refreshed. Delighted with the remedy, she repeated the dose so often that the monarch's poison was all drank. He soon discovered this, and forced the lady to confess what she had done. A quantity of wine was made; and Jerusheed and all his court, drank of the new beverage—which from the circumstance that led to its discovery, is this day known in Persia by the name of *Jeher-e-Kosha*, the delightful poison!



WILD SPORTS OF THE EAST.

The above engraving is from a work recently published in London, entitled "Pen and Pencil Sketches of India," by Captain Mundy. The anecdote connected with the sketch furnishes an extraordinary instance of the sagacity of the elephant:

"By crack sportsmen the lion is reputed to afford better sport than the tiger: his attack is more open and certain; a peculiarity arising either from the noble nature of the Jungle King, or from the country he haunts being less favorable for a retreat than the thick swampy morasses frequented by the tiger.

"A gentleman of our party had, perhaps, as perilous an adventure with one of these animals as any one; he having enjoyed the singular distinction of lying for some moments in the very clutches of the royal quadruped. Though I have heard him recount the incident more than once, and have myself sketched the scene, yet I am not sure that I relate it correctly. The main feature, however, of the anecdote, affording so striking an illustration of the sagacity of the elephant, may be strictly depended upon.

"A lion charged my hero's elephant, and he, having wounded him, was in the act of leaning forward in order to fire another shot, when the front of the howdah suddenly gave way, and he was precipitated over the head of the elephant into the very jaws of the furious beast. The lion though severely hurt, immediately seized him, and would doubtless shortly have put a fatal termination to the conflict, had not the elephant, urged by his mahout, or driver, stepped forward, though greatly alarmed, and grasping in her trunk the top of a young tree, bent it down across the loins of the lion, and thus forced the tortured animal to quit his hold! My friend's life was thus saved, but his arm was broken in two places, and he was severely clawed on the breast and shoulders."

From amongst the numerous descriptions of tiger hunts, we select the following: "At four, P. M. (so late an hour that few of us expected any sport)

Lord Combermere and nine others of our party, mounted elephants, and taking twenty pad elephants to beat the covert, and carry the guides and the game, proceeded towards the swamp pointed out as the lurking-place of the buffalo-devouring monsters.

"The jungle was in no places very high, there being but few trees, and a fine thick covert of grass and rushes. Every thing was favorable for the sport. Few of us, however, expecting to find a tiger, another man and myself dismounted from our elephants, to get a shot at a florikan, a bird of the bustard tribe, which we killed. It afterwards proved that there were two tigers within an hundred paces of the spot where we were walking. We beat for half an hour steadily in line, and I was just beginning to yawn in despair, when my elephant suddenly raised his trunk, and trumpeted several times, which my Mahout (elephant driver) informed me was a sure sign that there was a tiger somewhere 'between the wind and our nobility.' The formidable line of thirty elephants, therefore, brought up their left shoulders, and beat slowly on to windward.

"We had gone about three hundred yards in this direction, and had entered a swampy part of the jungle, when suddenly the long wished for 'Tallyho!' saluted our ears, and a shot from Capt. M. confirmed the sporting *eureka!* The tiger answered the shot with a loud roar, and boldly charged the line of elephants. Then occurred the most ridiculous but most provoking scene possible. Every elephant except Lord Combermere's, (which was a known stanch one) turned tail, in spite of all the blows and imprecations heartily bestowed upon them by the mahouts. One, less expeditious in his retreat than the others, was overtaken by the tiger, and severely torn in the hind leg; while another, even more alarmed, we could distinguish flying over the plain, till he quite sunk below the horizon. The tiger, in the meanwhile, advanced to attack his lordship's elephant, but, being wounded in the loins by Capt. M.'s shot, failed in his

spring, and shrunk back among the rushes. My elephant was one of the first of the run-aways to return to action; and when I ran up alongside of Lord Combermere, (whose heroic animal had stood like a rock) he was quite *hors du combat*, having fired all his broadside. I handed him a gun, and we poured a volley of four barrels upon the tiger, who attempting again to charge, fell from weakness. Several shots more were expended upon him before he dropped dead; upon which we gave a good hearty 'whoo! whoop!' and stowed him upon a pad elephant.

THE AIR WE BREATHE.

Nothing is more interesting than those general laws by which God preserves the order of the world. If we had a complete knowledge of all the wonderful contrivances that surround us, we should be filled with admiration and awe: to contemplate those with which we are acquainted, is the highest of intellectual pleasures.

One of these contrivances may be made intelligible even to those who have no acquaintance with Natural Philosophy.

The Air is made up of *two different gases*, or *airs*, mixed together in a particular proportion. Of these, *one (oxygen)*, which we will call *life-air*, is necessary for the support of men and all other animals, which would die without it; neither could any thing *burn* without the help of this *life-air*. Since, then, a vast quantity of it is consumed every hour, how is the supply kept up? How is it that the stock of *life-air* is still sufficient for us, and our fires and candles?

Now, besides these two gases, there is also present in the atmosphere another gas, called carbonic acid, which is made up of *carbon* and *life-air*. The name will be unknown to many, but all are well acquainted with the thing: it is what gives spirit to ale, wine, &c., and even to water, which is insipid after boiling, from the loss of its carbonic acid.

This carbonic acid is produced by the breathing of animals, and the putrefaction of animal and vegetable substances. Now, this constant supply *must be got rid of*, or it would kill us; and *it is got rid of* thus: all vegetables—grass, herbs, trees, &c.—suck in this carbonic acid during the day; nourish themselves with the *carbon*, and give back the *life-air* that was combined with it. In the night, they do the reverse; but still, taking a whole day, they lessen the quantity of carbonic acid gas, and furnish the atmosphere with that supply of *life-air*, which is necessary for the existence of the animal creation.

SIMPLE EXPEDIENT.

In the granite quarries near Seringapatam, the most enormous blocks are separated from the solid rock by the following neat and simple process. The workman having found a portion of the rock sufficiently extensive, and situated near the edge of the part already quarried, lays bare the upper surface, and marks on it a line in the direction of the intended separation, along which a groove is cut. Above this groove a narrow line of fire is then kindled, and maintained till the rock below is thoroughly heated, immediately on which a line of men and women, each provided with a pot full of cold water, suddenly sweep off the ashes, and pour the water into the heated groove, when the rock at once splits with a clean fracture.

ANTWERP.



West front of Antwerp Cathedral.

The city of Antwerp stands on the east or right bank of the Schelde, in north lat. $51^{\circ} 14'$, and about twenty-five miles in a straight line nearly due north of Brussels, the present capital of Belgium. The Flemish name for this place is *Antwerpen*; the Spaniards, who once possessed it, call it *Amberes*, and the French, *Anvers*. Few places are more favorably situated for foreign commerce than Antwerp. The river opposite the town is from 1500 to 2000 feet wide, and admits the largest ships to come up to Antwerp, and to enter the docks and canals. From Antwerp to the mouth of the river is about fifteen miles, and this space is lined with forts.

Antwerp is strongly fortified on the land side like most of the old Belgian towns, and has also on the south a remarkably strong citadel, in the form of a pentagon, which was erected by the Duke of Alva in 1563. During the occupation of Antwerp by the French, in the reign of Napoleon, the works of the citadel were strengthened, and several additions made by which its outward form has been altered; and it is now considered able to make a formidable resistance. The principal houses of Antwerp are built of a kind of sandstone, brought about ten miles from the town; the streets are generally wide, and on the whole it may be called a well-built city. It is said to contain twenty-six public places, or squares, (of which the Meer, the finest of all, contains a palace built by Napoleon,) seventy public buildings, and one hundred and sixty-two streets. The chief public buildings are the Bourse or Exchange, said to be the pattern after which those of London and Amsterdam were built, though it is superior to either of them. The pillars that support its galleries are of marble. The Town-house is also reckoned a fine structure. But the glory of Antwerp is its Cathedral, which,

in spite of some paltry shops that stick to its walls, strikes every stranger with admiration when he views the noble elevation of its steeple, and the costly decorations of its interior. The steeple is of stone, and 400 feet high, according to those accounts which make it least; but others make it as much as 450 feet. When the spectator has ascended to the highest point that is accessible, he sees all the city spread out like a map before him, while by the aid of a small glass his eye travels over the flat plains of Belgium and Holland for forty miles in every direction.

Antwerp, besides its connexion with the sea, has a ready water communication, either by the Schelde or canals, with Mechlin, Louvain, and Brussels on the south and east, and with Ghent and Bruges on the west. In 1831 its population was 77,199. Before the late revolution in 1830, the trade of Antwerp was considerable; though it must doubtless have suffered very much since that period, in consequence of the unsettled state of the Belgic question. In 1829, near 1000 ships entered its ports. Antwerp has also extensive manufactures of black sewing silk, linen and woollen cloth, silk, sugar refining, &c.

Antwerp has been the scene of many remarkable political events, and has often suffered the evils attendant on war. As late as 1830 it sustained considerable damage from the cannonading directed against it by the Dutch troops in the citadel.

Many of our readers have probably read of the great siege of Antwerp in 1585, by the Prince of Parma, against whom it held out for fourteen months. The Prince, in order to command the navigation of the river, built strong projecting piers on each side, which were mounted with cannon; while the intermediate space, which was thus rendered comparatively narrow, was filled up with boats chained together, and firmly moored. This enormous work, which withstood all the floods of winter, was destroyed by the fireships of Antwerp. One of these horrible machines, in its course down the river, struck against one of the piers, and its explosion burst through the bridge of boats, destroyed the pier, and blew up the men and ammunition with which it was loaded. In spite, however, of the courage and obstinacy of the Antwerpers, they were at last compelled to surrender to the Spanish troops. The history of this once flourishing city exhibits rather a melancholy retrospect. Reduced to a population of less than 80,000, with its trade diminished, and an enemy in its citadel, we cannot help looking back to its flourishing days of the early part of the sixteenth century, when 200,000 inhabitants and strangers are said to have filled its streets, and the commerce of the world was in its harbor. The names of such illustrious painters as Rubens, Van Dyke, and Jordaens, have shed a lustre on it as a school of painting; and among its illustrious citizens we may mention the name of the early geographer, Abraham Ortelius.

Russian Justice.—The following story gives a lively idea of the Russian rule of Poland. A Jew met a Cossack in the forest; the latter robbed him of his horse. On returning to the town, he lodged a complaint with the Major in command, who was (with what truth we shall say) reputed to be a most rigorous disciplinarian. The Cossacks were paraded, the robber was pointed out, when, with the utmost effrontery, he declared he had found the horse.—“How?” replied the Jew, “I was on his back.” “Yes,” retorted the Cossack, “I found you too; but having no use for a Jew, I did not keep you.” The excuse was deemed sufficient, and the Jew lost his steed.

THE CURASSOW

Is a bird which bears much resemblance to the pheasant, though naturalists have agreed in considering it as a distinct genus. It comprehends four or five species, with some varieties, but they are all of them foreign birds, and belong only to the warm climates of America. They are mostly about the size of a small turkey, and are generally distinguished by a crest of feathers, which curl at the ends.



This crest can be raised or depressed at will. The plumage of the Crested Curassow is of a deep black, with a slight gloss of green upon the head, crest, neck, back, wings, and upper part of the tail; and dull white beneath, and on the lower tail-coverts.

There is another species which is called the *Casheu Curassow*, or *Casheu Bird*, from a large blue gibbosity, resembling a cashew nut, and as large as a pear, which is situated at the base of the forehead. The whole bird is of a shining bluish color, reflecting purple glosses; except the lower part of the belly, the covert feathers, under the tail, and the tips of the tail feathers, which are white.

In Mexico, Guiana, and Brazil, these birds are very numerous, both in a wild and a tame state. The flesh is excellent. We hope ere long to see this fine bird domesticated in the United States.

THE DIAMOND BEETLE.

This Beetle belongs to the weevil tribe, and its scientific denomination is the Imperial Weevil. It inhabits South America, chiefly Brazil, and is the most resplendently colored of all the insect class.



The ground color of the wings is a coal black, with numerous parallel lines of sparkling indentations round, which are of a green gold color, highly brilliant, from minute reflecting scales, like the scales of a butterfly. There is another rich and elegant species of this insect in India; where, however, it is so very scarce, that the wing cases (and sometimes the whole insect), are set like a gem on rings, and worn by the great. The body is of a silky green with broad golden bands. This insect is the *Curculio gemmatus*.

FILIAL AFFECTION OF THE MOORS.

A Portuguese surgeon was accosted one day by a young Moor from the country, who, addressing him by the usual appellation of foreign doctors in that place, requested him to give him some *drogues* to kill his father, and, as an inducement, promised to pay him well. The surgeon was a little surprised at first, as might be expected, and was unable to answer immediately; but quickly recovering himself (for he knew the habits of the people well), replied with *sang froid* equal to the Moor's, "Then you don't live comfortably with your father, I suppose?" "Oh, nothing can be better," returned the Moor; "he has made much money, has married me well, and endowed me with all his possessions; but he cannot work any longer, he is so old, and he seems unwilling to die." The doctor, of course, appreciated the amiable philosophy of the Moor's reasoning, and promised to give him what he desired. He accordingly prepared a cordial potion, more calculated to restore energy to the old man, than to take it away. The Moor paid him well, and departed. About eight days after he came again, to say that his father was not dead. "Not dead!" exclaimed the apothecary, in well-feigned surprise; "he will die." He composed accordingly another draught, for which he received an equal remuneration, and assured the Moor that it would not fail in its effects. In fifteen days, however, the Moor came again, complaining that his father thrived better than ever. "Don't be discouraged," said the doctor, who doubtless found these periodical visits by no means unprofitable, "give him another potion, and I will exert all my skill in its preparation." The Moor took it, but returned no more. One day the surgeon met his young acquaintance in the street, and inquired the success of the remedy. "It was of no avail," he replied mournfully; "my father is in excellent health. God has preserved him from all our efforts; there is no doubt that he is a Marabout"—(a Saint.)

VANDALIA.

Volumes on the subject of the United States continue to succeed each other in London with a rapidity, which proves that a deep interest has been awakened in the minds of the people of England, with regard to our country. We find the following notice of the quick growth of Vandalia, in Illinois, in a book recently published, called "Three Years in America," by James Stuart: "It is an extraordinary fact, that in this town, (Vandalia) the capital of Illinois, a state more extensive, and infinitely more fertile than England, and the first house in which was not begun until the year 1821, three annual meetings of an antiquarian and historical society have already taken place, and the whole of their published proceedings are as regular, as well conducted and as well printed, as if the seat of the society had been at Oxford or at Cambridge. The whole annual disbursements in this state for salaries to the executive do not exceed 10,000 dollars. The people of Illinois have adhered tenaciously to democratic principles, retaining in their hands every power which can be conveniently withheld from the rulers. Elections are frequent, and the right of suffrage general. Imprisonment for debt and laws against usury are abolished." Speaking of the Bostonians, the author says: "All are, or seem to be, in the full enjoyment of the necessities of life, and all busy, active and employed."

THE GLADNESS OF NATURE.

BY W. C. BRYANT.

Is this a time to be cloudy and sad,
When our mother Nature laughs around;
When even the deep blue heavens look glad,
And gladness breathes from the blossoming ground?

There are notes of joy from the hang-bird and wren,
And the gossip of swallows through all the sky;
The ground-squirrel gaily chirps by his den,
And the wilding bee hums merrily by.

The clouds are at play in the azure space,
And their shadows at play on the bright green vale,
And here they stretch to the frolic chase,
And there they roll on the easy gale.

There's a dance of leaves in that aspen bower,
There's a titer of winds in that beechen tree,
There's a smile on the fruit, and a smile on the flower,
And a laugh from the brook that runs to the sea.

And look at the broad-faced sun how he smiles
On the dewy earth that smiles in his ray,
On the leaping waters and gay young isles,
Ay, look, and he'll smile thy gloom away.

RATS IN JAMAICA.

In no country is there a creature so destructive of property as the rat is in Jamaica; their ravages are inconceivable. One year with another, it is supposed that they destroy at least about a twentieth part of the sugar-canes throughout the island, amounting to little short of L.200,000 currency per annum. The sugar-cane is their favorite food; but they also prey upon the Indian corn, on all the fruits that are accessible to them, and on many of the roots. Some idea will be formed of the immense swarms of those destructive animals that infest this island, from the fact, that on a single plantation thirty thousand were destroyed in one year. Traps of various kinds are set to catch them, poison is resorted to, and terriers, and sometimes ferrets, are employed to explore their haunts, and root them out; still, however, their numbers remain undiminished, as far at least as can be judged by the ravages they commit. They are of a much larger size than the European rat, especially that kind of them called by the negroes *racoons*. On the experiment being tried of putting one of these and a cat together, the latter declined attacking it.

BURNING MUMMIES.

The Arabs who inhabit the neighborhood of the great cemeteries of Upper Egypt have a strange way of cooking their victuals. Whenever fuel is wanting, they descend into their tombs, and, dislodging a mummy, and throwing it on their shoulders, return to their tent. Then taking a hatchet, and seizing the mummy by one leg, they hew the body into two at a blow, and, afterwards cutting it into smaller pieces, make use of a leg or an arm, or part of the trunk, as it may happen, to boil their kettle. As the ancient Egyptians always enclosed their dead in resinous substances, the mummies are easily combustible, and make excellent fuel.

Whale Fishery.—In 1832, the whale fishery, produced to American industry 78,999 barrels. In 1831 the produce was 107,752 barrels; deficiency for 1832, 28,753 bbls. Of the quantity sent home in 1832, upwards of 36,000 bbls. were imported into New Bedford, 31,000 into Nantucket; into Newport 4190; into Plymouth 2120.

Commodore Tucker.—The venerable Samuel Tucker of Bremen Me., who died on the 10th of March, 1833, in the 86th year of his age, was the last surviving commodore of the revolution. He was a Marblehead mariner, and continued his seafaring course until the commencement of the difficulties with the mother country. He received the first written commission as commodore, which was issued during the Revolution, and was selected by Washington to convey John Adams, our first minister to France. It was on this occasion that he remained at the helm, while chased by a frigate of the enemy, *seventy-two hours at one time*, until nature absolutely sunk under the weight of fatigue and exhaustion. A kinder heart than the Commodore's never beat in the bosom of man. He was as hospitable, as sociable, and as peaceable in private life, as he was restless, vehement and strict in the discharge of his official duties. A pension of 600 dollars a year was recently settled by government on Commodore Tucker. "It came too late."

Singular Experiment.—One of the most remarkable and inexplicable experiments relative to the strength of the human frame, says Sir David Brewster, is that in which a heavy man is raised with the greatest facility, when he is lifted up the instant that his own lungs and those of the persons who raise him are inflated with air. This experiment was, I believe, first shown in England a few years ago by Major H., who saw it performed in a large party at Venice under the direction of an officer of the American Navy. As Major H. performed it more than once in my presence, I shall describe as nearly as possible the method which he prescribed. The heaviest person in the party lies down upon two chairs, his legs being supported by the one and his back by the other. Four persons, one at each leg, and one at each shoulder, then try to raise him, and they find his dead weight to be very great, from the difficulty they experience in supporting him. When he is replaced in the chair, each of the four persons takes hold of the body as before, and the person to be lifted gives two signals by clapping his hands. At the first signal he himself and the four lifters begin to draw a long and full breath, and when the inhalation is completed, or the lungs filled, the second signal is given, for raising the person from the chair. To his own surprise and that of his bearers, he rises with the greatest facility, as if he were no heavier than a feather.

Lead Mines.—The quantity of lead manufactured at the mines during the year ending 30th September last, was 4,281,876 lbs. being a diminution of 2,167,204 lbs. as compared with the returns of 1831. This deficiency is explained partly by the fact, that during the past year no lead was drawn from the mines of Missouri, (no leases having been granted there since the Act of 1823, authorizing the sale of all the mineral lands in that State,) and partly by the interruption of the miners on the Upper Mississippi in consequence of the Indian War. The annexed schedule shows the quantity manufactured in each year, ending 30th September, from 1823 to 1832, inclusive.

	<i>Fever River.</i>	<i>Missouri.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
1823	335,130		335,130
1824	175,220		175,220
1825	664,530	396,590	1,051,120
1826	958,842	1,374,962	2,333,804
1827	5,182,180	910,390	6,092,560
1828	11,105,810	1,205,920	12,311,730
1829	13,340,150	1,198,160	14,541,310
1830	8,323,998	8,060	8,332,058
1831	6,381,900	67,180	6,449,080
1832	4,281,876		4,281,876
Totals	50,752,036	5,151,252	55,903,888

Of the amount manufactured the past year, there has accrued to the United States for rents, 238,898 pounds.

Sheathing for Ships' Bottoms.—A new metallic sheathing, the invention of Baron Wetterstett has recently been introduced into England, for covering ships' bottoms. It is an alloy of lead, antimony, and quicksilver; the combination of which is such as not only to preserve them from oxidating, but also imparts to the composition peculiar qualities of cohesion, tenacity, and elasticity, qualities which are not possessed by copper or its alloys generally, and which render the patent material highly eligible for the purpose to which it is applied. After use, the outward surface of this marine sheathing remains perfectly clean and bright, like silver, without any adhesion of barnacles, or other marine produc-

tions, such as were found to be so great a means of obstruction in the experimental trials of Sir Humphrey Davy. The chief points of superiority possessed by Wetterstett's sheathing over that of copper, are, that it is not subject, like the latter, to oxidation, and consequent destruction, or to the accumulation of sea-weed, barnacles, or other materials, which retard the speed of the vessel; to which may be added, that this combination of metals acquires additional hardness by being kept in contact with the sea; that it is of considerably less price than copper; and that it is far more durable than sheathing made of the last-named metal.

VARIETIES.

The second inauguration of Andrew Jackson as President of the United States took place on the fourth of March. The Hall of the House of Representatives, at Washington, was crowded to excess on the occasion. In the area sat the seven Judges in their plain robes of office, and the Foreign Legations in their court dresses, stars, garters and embroidery. After the President had delivered his inaugural speech, the oath of office was administered by Judge Marshal, and the ceremony ended.

The capital of the chartered Banks in the city of Philadelphia, sixteen in number, amounts to 20,600,000 dollars—amount paid in, 18,935,000. The capital of the Insurance Companies, fourteen in number, is 5,080,000 dollars.

A bill has passed the House of Delegates of Virginia, appropriating \$18,000 annually, for five years, for the purpose of colonizing in Africa, the free people of color in that State.

The Legislature of New York have incorporated, at various sessions, thirty-three rail road companies, with an aggregate capital of \$27,555,000.

The number of European emigrants, who have arrived at Quebec during the last five years, is stated at 156,000.

The St. Louis times of March 2nd, states, that a company of traders, twelve or fourteen in number, under the command of Capt. Kerr, were attacked on the Canadian Fork of the Arkansas, sometime during the latter part of Dec. or the beginning of Jan. last, by about 200 Indians, chiefly Kiawas. They fought for 36 hours; and after having expended their ammunition, and lost two of their number, they escaped in the night, leaving about 10, or \$12,000 in specie on the prairie. The privations and hardships of the unfortunate party, after their escape, were very severe. Their horses and mules had been shot by the Indians, and they had great difficulty in procuring food.

The great rail road from Baltimore to the Ohio river is completed to the Potomac, at a place called the Point of Rocks, a distance of 70 miles. The cars are drawn by horses, though steam cars have been used. The progress of the work is interrupted at the Potomac by some dispute with a canal company as to the route. On the part of the rail road now completed are some declivities, at one of which a serious accident has recently happened.

The Rail Road from New Castle on the Delaware to Frenchtown on the Chesapeake, is 16 miles in length. The steam car, draws several other cars after it, containing sometimes 100 or 200 passengers with their baggage. The baggage car takes the lead of the passengers. The distance is usually gone over in 55 minutes.

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[Male and Female Ostrich.]

THE OSTRICH OF SOUTH AFRICA.

The ostrich of South Africa is a prudent and wary animal, and displays little of that stupidity ascribed to this bird by some naturalists. On the borders of the Cape Colony, at least, where it is eagerly pursued for the sake of its valuable plumage, the ostrich displays no want of sagacity in providing for its own safety or the security of its offspring. It adopts every possible precaution to conceal the place of its nest; and uniformly abandons it, after destroying the eggs, if it perceives that the eggs have been disturbed or the footsteps of man are discovered near it. In relieving each other in hatching, the birds are said to be careful not to be seen together at the nest, and are never observed to approach it in a direct line.

The male ostrich of South Africa at the time of breeding usually associates to himself from two to six females. The hens lay all their eggs together in one nest; the nest being merely a shallow cavity scraped in the ground, of such dimensions as to be conveniently covered by one of these gigantic birds in incubation. A most ingenious device is employed to save space, and give at the same time to all the eggs their due share of warmth. The eggs are made to stand each with the narrow end on the bottom of the nest and the broad end upwards; and the earth which has been scraped out to form the cavity is employed to confine the outer circle, and

keep the whole in the proper position. The hens relieve each other in the office of incubation during the day, and the male takes his turn at night, when his superior strength is required to protect the eggs or the new-fledged young from the jackalls, tigers, cats, and other enemies. Some of these animals, it is said, are not unfrequently found lying dead near the nest, destroyed by a stroke from the foot of this powerful bird.

As many as sixty eggs are sometimes found in and around an ostrich nest; but a smaller number is more common; and incubation is occasionally performed by a single pair of ostriches. Each female lays from twelve to sixteen eggs. They continue to lay during incubation, and even after the young brood are hatched; the supernumerary eggs are not placed in the nest, but around it, being designed to assist in the nourishment of the young birds, which, though as large as a pullet when first hatched, are probably unable at once to digest the hard and acrid food on which the old ones subsist. The period of incubation is from thirty-six to forty days. In the middle of the day the nest is occasionally left by all the birds, the heat of the sun being then sufficient to keep the eggs at the proper temperature.

An ostrich egg is considered as equal in its contents to twenty-four of the domestic hen. When taken fresh from the nest, they are very palatable

and are wholesome though somewhat heavy food. The best mode of cooking them is that practised by the Hottentots, namely, to place one end of the egg in the hot ashes, and making a small orifice in the other, keep stirring the contents with a bit of stick till they are sufficiently roasted; and then with a seasoning of salt and pepper you have a very nice omelette.

Some of the Cape colonists, on the skirts of the Great Karroo and other remote districts, make the pursuit of the ostrich one of their principal and most profitable amusements. The beautiful white feathers so much prized in Europe are found on the tail only of the male bird. It is extremely difficult to get within shot of them, owing to their constant vigilance, and the great distance to which they can see. The fleetest horse, too, will not overtake them unless stratagem be adopted to tire them out; but by several horsemen taking different sides of a large plain, and pursuing them backwards and forwards till their strength is exhausted, they may be at length run down. If followed up too eagerly this chase is not destitute of danger, for the huntsman has sometimes had his thigh-bone broken by a single stroke from the wing or the foot of a wounded ostrich. While jealous and vigilant against the hunter, these birds will often allow travellers in waggons to approach very close to them before they become alarmed. A Hottentot waggon-driver once carried the writer of this article almost within pistol-shot of a covey of ostriches, by driving round and round them in a circle and gradually narrowing the distance till they took flight.

The food of the ostrich consists of the tops of the various shrubby plants which even the most arid parts of South Africa produce in abundance. This bird is so easily satisfied in regard to water that he is constantly to be found in the most parched and desolate tracts which even the antelopes and the beasts of prey have deserted. His cry at a distance so much resembles that of the lion, that even the Hottentots are said to be sometimes deceived by it.

When not hatching they are frequently seen in troops of thirty or forty together, or amicably associated with herds of zebras or quaggas, their fellow-tenants of the wilderness. If caught young the ostrich is easily tamed; but it does not appear that any attempt has been made to apply his great strength and swiftness to any purpose of practical utility.

GAS LIGHT.

Daily habit has the effect of so soon familiarising objects to us, that we seldom pause to think how they have had a commencement. Gas light is now as familiar to us as the light of the sun or moon. It even illumines cellars and recesses, where the rays of either of these luminaries never pierce; and yet we have only to go back a very few years, when it was totally unknown, at least for all useful purposes. We recollect, when gas first began to be talked of, a gentleman observing, in a pretty large assemblage, that he would not be surprised, in the course of a few years, to see the substance, as a common commodity, sold about the streets in centworths. The idea was received with that smile of incredulity which the vagaries of a fanciful mind often meet with; and yet those very few years had not expired when gas was actually conveyed through pipes into every street and dwelling,

measured out by metres, and sold by the cubic foot.

The inflammable nature of coal-gas was first known from its dreadful explosive effects in mines, and received the name of *fire* or *choke-damp*. It was also observed to issue sometimes from crevices on the surface of the earth, when, on a lighted torch being presented to it, it would inflame, and continue to burn for a considerable period. In the year 1726, Stephen Hales procured an elastic air or gas from the distillation of common coal; and although some experiments of the inflammability of air so procured were occasionally made by individuals, and related in the scientific publications of the day, yet the subject excited little attention, and was ultimately thrown aside for a long period of years.

The most casual observer must have remarked, that, when a piece of coal becomes heated in the fire, it begins to swell; it then bursts at a particular part; a stream of air rushes out, and, coming in contact with the fire, ignites into a flame. If a common tobacco pipe is taken, a small piece of coal put into the bulb, the top of this cemented closely with moist clay, and the bulb then put into the fire, a stream of inflammable air will, in a short time, issue from the extremity of the pipe, and continue to do so till the whole gas the coal contains is exhausted. On examining the matter remaining, it will be found to be coke, or charcoal. Coal, then, by this mode of distillation, is found to consist of an inflammable gas, called carburetted hydrogen, and of charcoal. The extension of this long-known and simple experiment into a process of general usefulness, proceeded by gradual and oft-interrupted steps; and, as is usual in many important processes of the kind, the real inventor is involved in some degree of doubt. In the year 1792, a Mr. Murdoch, residing in Cornwall, England, made use of coal-gas for lighting up his house and offices; and in 1797, he again made a similar use of it at Old Cumnock, in Ayrshire. In 1802, he was residing at Messrs. Boulton and Watt's establishment, Soho, near Birmingham, where, under the combined talents of several ingenious engineers who were assembled at that highly liberal and celebrated seat of the arts and sciences, a splendid illumination of gas was exhibited on the occasion of the celebration of the peace of that year.

But some time previous to this public exhibition of gas illumination at Soho, it had been made use of in a similar manner at Paris, by a M. le Bon. In 1801, a friend of the gentlemen at Soho had written a letter from Paris, communicating the information that a gentleman of that city had lighted up his house and gardens, and had it in contemplation to light the streets of Paris with gas from wood and coal.

Adopting the hint from this gentleman, a Mr. Winsor, a foreigner, came to London, in 1803, and publicly exhibited gas illumination, and explained its nature, and held out its numerous advantages, in a series of lectures at the Lyceum Theatre. Winsor was a mere quack, a man of little talent, but one of those active, bustling, indefatigable beings, well calculated to spread a new invention. For several years, under many failures and great disadvantages, he persevered in his projects, and, in 1807, lighted up a part of Pall Mall, which was the first instance of gas light being applied to such a purpose in Britain. Public attention was now

roused; subscriptions were set a-going; various companies were formed; great improvements in the manufacture of the gas were introduced; its usefulness was fairly established; and its adoption in manufactories and public places soon became universal. Gas light first made its appearance in Edinburgh in the spring of 1818, a company having been formed, and incorporated by act of Parliament, for that purpose. This establishment produces annually about 46,000,000 cubic feet of gas, consuming, for this purpose, about 4000 tons of cannel or parrot coal, besides 1000 tons of coal used in heating the retorts. The process of making gas is not complicated. The coal is put into large retorts of iron, and fire applied underneath. The gas, which is separated by this heat, then passes through an apparatus, where it is freed from an oily or tarry matter, which drops from it, and is afterwards purified by passing through lime water. It is then stored up into large reservoirs, or gasometers, from whence it is sent by pressure through pipes, laid under ground, to the various parts of the city.

Gas was introduced into the chief cities of the United States but a few years since, and now its use is daily increasing. In Boston it is no longer an object of wondering curiosity to the passers-by; although our readers can recollect the time when the few windows illuminated by its glare would attract crowds of spectators. The gas which lights London is calculated to consume 38,000 chaldrons of coals per annum, lighting 42,000 lamps in shops, houses, &c., and 7,500 street lamps. In 1830, the gas pipes in and round London were above 1,000 miles in length. Gas lights of half an inch in diameter, supply a light equal to 20 candles; of one inch in diameter, equal to 100; two inches, 420; three inches, to 1000.

The kind of coal best suited for the distillation of gas, is that which contains in its composition the greatest proportion of bituminous or inflammable matter. It is called parrot or cannel coal, and is only found in particular situations. The Edinburgh Gas Works are supplied from the coal pits of the Marquis of Lothian, near Dalkeith. Gas bids fair almost entirely to supersede oil or tallow as articles of illumination. It produces ten times the quantity of light at an equal or inferior rate of expense, and it can be increased or modified at pleasure. Objections have been made to the deleterious nature of the gas on the lungs. There can be no doubt, but, if inhaled in any quantity for a very short period, it will produce instantaneous death, and even, in less quantities, headaches and uncomfortable sensations; but this applies to the unburnt gas. If sufficient care is taken that the whole be accurately consumed by flame, there is no greater danger or inconvenience in its combustion than in that of any other inflammable substance.

The illumination of our streets with gas has been said, and with justice, to be one of the best preservatives against crime. How different are the streets of the populous cities in Europe now to what they were in former days! In the year 1417, Sir Henry Barton, then Mayor of London, ordained "lanterns with lights to be hanged out in the winter evenings between Hallow tide and Candlemas." The city of Paris was first lighted in 1524; and in the beginning of the 16th century, the streets being infested with robbers, the inhabitants were ordered to keep lights burning in the windows of all such houses as fronted the streets. The aqueducts of the ancients, by which they brought water from a

distance for the supply of their cities, were contrivances much talked of, and certainly some of them appear to have been stupendous undertakings; but how would an ancient stare if he were shown the streets of a modern city, laid bare to view with its water and gas pipes passing along, and ramifying in all directions, like the arteries and air-vessels of an animal body, circulating, as from a centre, moisture and heat to the most remote extremities!

PAPYRUS.



The first manufactured paper of which we have any record, is the celebrated papyrus, made of a species of reed growing in Egypt on the banks of the Nile. According to a passage in Lucan, which is likewise corroborated by other authorities, this paper was first manufactured at Memphis, but it has been a matter of much controversy to fix the precise period of its invention.

The papyrus formed, without doubt, at a very early period, an important branch of commerce to the Egyptians, and was one of the manufactures carried on by that people at Alexandria. It obtained an increasing importance among the Romans as literature became more valued and diffused; in the Augustan age it grew into most extensive demand. We are told in the reign of Tiberius, of a popular commotion which arose in consequence of a scarcity of this valuable material. The commerce in papyrus continued to flourish during a long period, the supply being always less than the demand. Its value was so great towards the end of the third century, that when Firmus, a rich and ambitious merchant, striving at empire, conquered for a brief period the city of Alexandria, he boasted that he had seized as much paper and size as would support his whole army.

Papyrus was much used in the time of St. Jerome, who wrote at the latter end of the fourth century. An article of so much importance in commerce was made largely to contribute to the revenue of the Roman empire, and fresh imposts were laid on it under successive rulers, until the duty on its importation at length became oppressive. This was abolished by Theodoric, the first king of the Goths in Italy, at the end of the fifth or beginning of the sixth century. Cassiodorus records the gracious act in the thirty-eighth letter of his eleventh book, in which he takes occasion to congratulate "the whole world on the repeal of an impost

upon an article so essentially necessary to the human race," the general use of which, as Pliny has remarked, "polishes and immortalizes man."

The roots of the papyrus are tortuous, the stem triangular, rising to the height of twenty feet, tapering gradually towards the extremity, which is surmounted by a flowing plume.

Paper was prepared from the inner bark of the stem by dividing it with a kind of needle into thin plates or pellicles, each of them as large as the plant would admit. Of these strata the sheets of paper were composed. The pellicles in the centre were considered as the best; and each plate diminished in value according as it receded from that part. After being thus separated from the reed, the pieces, trimmed and cut smooth at the sides that they might the better meet together, were extended close to and touching each other on a table; upon these other pieces were placed at right angles. In this state the whole was moistened with the water of the Nile, and while wet was subjected to pressure, being afterwards exposed to the rays of the sun. It was generally supposed that the muddy waters of the Nile possessed a glutinous property, which caused the adhesion to each other of these strips of papyrus. Bruce, the traveller, however, affirms that there was no foundation for this supposition, and that the turbid fluid has in reality no adhesive quality. On the contrary, he found that the water of this river was of all others the most improper for the purpose, until, by the subsidence of the fecula, it was entirely divested of the earthy particles it had gathered in its course. This traveller made several pieces of papyrus paper both in Abyssinia and in Egypt, and fully ascertained that the saccharine juice, with which the plant is replete, causes the adhesion of the parts together, the water being only of use to promote the solution of this juice, and its equal diffusion over the whole.

Sufficient evidence of the abundant use of the papyrus is to be found in the fact that nearly eighteen hundred manuscripts written on paper of this description have been discovered in the ruins of Herculaneum.

Paper made of cotton entirely superseded the papyrus in the course of time, as being much more durable and better calculated for all the purposes to which paper is ordinarily applied. This new substance was called *charla bombycina*. It cannot be exactly ascertained when this manufacture was first introduced. Montfaucon fixes the time as being the end of the ninth or beginning of the tenth century, a period when the scarcity of parchment and the failure in the supply of papyrus called forth the powers of invention to supply some adequate substitute. It was about this time that the dearth of writing materials induced the Greeks to pursue the almost sacrilegious practice of erasing the valuable writings of ancient authors, that they might obtain the parchment on which these were inscribed.

Many proofs are afforded that in the beginning of the twelfth century cotton-paper was commonly used in the eastern empire for books and writings; but it was not deemed sufficiently durable for important documents, for which purpose parchment was still employed.

The fabrication of this kind of paper has been a flourishing branch of industry in the Levant for many centuries, and is carried on with great success even to the present time. The paper produced from cotton is very white, strong, and of a fine grain, but not so well adapted for writing upon as

the paper made of linen. Much ingenuity must have been exercised, and many previous experiments must have been required, successfully to reduce the cotton to a pulpy substance, and to conduct the subsequent process, so as to render this material suitable to the purposes of writing.

After this first great step, the adaptation to a similar use of linen rags and other fibrous materials, called comparatively but for little invention, and it was probably not very long after the general use of cotton for paper, that linen rags were discovered to be a still better material.

CURRAN.

One morning, at an inn in the south of Ireland, a gentleman travelling upon mercantile business, came running down stairs a few minutes before the appearance of the stage coach, in which he had taken a seat for Dublin. Seeing an ugly little fellow leaning against the doorpost, with dirty face and shabby clothes, he bailed him and ordered him to brush his coat. The operation proceeding rather slowly, the impatient traveller cursed the lazy valet for an idle, good-for-nothing dog, and threatened him with corporal punishment on the spot, if he did not make haste and finish his job well before the arrival of the coach. Terror seemed to produce its effect; the fellow brushed the coat and then the trowsers, with great diligence, and was rewarded with sixpence, which he received with a low bow. The gentleman went into the bar, and paid his bill, just as the expected vehicle reached the door. Upon getting inside, guess his astonishment to find his friend the quondam waiter, seated snugly in one corner, with all the look of a person well used to comfort. After two or three hurried glances, to be sure that his eyes did not deceive him, he commenced a confused apology for his blunder, condemning his own rashness and stupidity—but he was speedily interrupted by the other exclaiming, "Oh, never mind, make no apologies—these are hard times, and it is well to earn a trifle in an honest way—I am much obliged for your handsome fee for so small a job—my name, sir, is John Philpot Curran, pray what is yours?" The other was thunderstruck by the idea of such an introduction; but the drollery of Curran soon overcame his confusion; and the traveller never rejoiced less at the termination of a long journey, than when he beheld the distant spires of Dublin glitter in the light of the setting sun.

MORNING.

The God of mercy walks his round
From day to day, from year to year,
And warns us each with awful sound,
"No longer stand ye idle here."

Ye whose young cheeks are rosy bright,
Whose hands are strong, whose hearts are clear,
Waste not of youth the morning light,
Oh fools why stand ye idle here?

And ye whose scanty locks of gray,
Foretell your latest travail near,
How fast declines your useless day,
And stand ye yet so idle here?

One hour remains there is but one,
But many a grief and many a tear
Through endless ages, must atone
For moments lost and wasted here.—HEBER.



THE GRISLY BEAR.

The strength and ferocity of the Grisly Bear are so great that the Indian hunters use much precaution in hunting them. They are reported to attain a weight exceeding eight hundred pounds, and Lewis and Clark mention one that measured nine feet from the nose to the tail and say that they had seen a still larger one, but do not give its dimensions. This is far above the usual size of other Land Bears and equals the largest specimens of the Polar Bear. Governor Clinton received an account of one fourteen feet long from an Indian Trader, but even admitting that there was no inaccuracy in the measurement, it is probable that it was taken from the skin after it was removed from the body, when it is known to stretch several feet. The strength of this Bear may be estimated from its having been known to drag to a considerable distance the carcass of a Buffalo, weighing about one thousand pounds. The following story is well authenticated. A party of voyagers, who had been employed all day in tracing a canoe up the Saskatchewan, had seated themselves in the twilight by a fire, and were busy in preparing their supper, when a large Grisly Bear sprung over their canoe that was tilted behind them and seizing one of the party by the shoulders carried him off. The rest fled in terror with the exception of a Metif, named Bourasso, who, grasping his gun followed the Bear as it was retreating leisurely with its prey. He called to his unfortunate comrade that he was afraid of hitting him if he fired at the Bear, but the latter entreated him to fire immediately, without hesitation, as the Bear was squeezing him to death. On this he took a deliberate aim, and discharged his piece into the body of the Bear which instantly dropped its prey to pursue Bourasso. He escaped with difficulty, and the Bear ultimately retreated to a thicket, where it was supposed to have died; but the curiosity of the party, not being a match for their fears, the fact of its decease was not ascertained. The man who was rescued had his arm fractured, and was otherwise severely bit-

ten by the bear, but finally recovered. "I have seen Bourasso," says Richardson, in his *Zoology of British America*, "and can add that the account which he gives is fully credited by the traders resident in that part of the country, who are best qualified to judge of its truth from their knowledge of the parties. I am told there is a man now living in the neighborhood of Edmonton House, who was attacked by a Grisly Bear which sprung out of a thicket, and with one stroke of his paw completely scalped him, laying bare the skull, and bringing the skin of the forehead down over his eyes. Assistance coming up, the Bear made off without doing him farther injury, but the scalp not being replaced, the poor man has lost his sight, although he thinks that his eyes are uninjured."

M. Drummond, in his excursions over the Rocky Mountains, had frequent opportunities of observing the manners of the Grisly Bears, and it often happened that in turning the point of the rock, or sharp angle of a valley he came suddenly upon one or more of them. On such occasions they reared upon their hind legs, and made a loud noise like a person breathing quick, but much harder. He kept his ground without attempting to molest them, and they on their part, after attentively regarding him for some time, generally wheeled round and galloped off, though, from their known disposition, there is little doubt but he would have been torn in pieces had he lost his presence of mind and attempted to fly. When he discovered them from a distance, he generally frightened them away by beating on a large tin box, in which he carried his specimens of plants. He never saw more than four together, and two of them he supposes to have been cubs; he more often met them singly or in pairs. He was only once attacked, and then by a female, for the purpose of allowing her cubs time to escape.

This animal has long been known to the Indians and fur traders as a distinct species, inferior to all the varieties of the Black Bear in the quality of its fur, and distinguished by its great strength and

ferocity, its carnivorous disposition, the length of its claws, the breadth and length of its soles, and the shortness of its tail.

The Grisly Bear inhabits the Rocky Mountains, and the plains lying to the eastward of them, as far as latitude 61° , and perhaps still farther north. Its southern range, according to Lieutenant Pike, extends to Mexico. Necklaces of the claws of a Grisly Bear are highly prized by the Indian warriors as proofs of their prowess.

THE GREAT EARTHQUAKE AT LISBON IN 1775.

Many natives of Portugal yet remember the morning of the first of November, 1775. The day dawned clear and beautiful. The sun shone out in its full lustre; the whole face of the sky was perfectly serene, and no one conceived of the horrible contrast, which was soon after to present itself. The earth had trembled at short intervals for a year. An English merchant, who resided at Lisbon, gives the following account of the approach of the final catastrophe:

"It was on the morning of this fatal day, between the hours of nine and ten, that I was sat down in my apartment, just finishing a letter, when the papers and table I was writing on, began to tremble with a gentle motion, which rather surprised me, as I could not perceive a breath of wind stirring. Whilst I was reflecting with myself what this could be owing to, but without having the least apprehension of the real cause, the whole house began to shake from the very foundation; which at first I imputed to the rattling of several coaches in the main street, which usually passed that way, at this time, from Belem to the palace; but on hearkening more attentively, I was soon undeceived, as I found it was owing to a strange frightful kind of noise under ground, resembling the hollow distant rumbling of thunder. All this passed in less than a minute, and I must confess I now began to be alarmed, as it naturally occurred to me that this noise might possibly be the forerunner of an earthquake; as one I remembered, which had happened about six or seven years ago, in the island of Madeira, commenced in the same manner, though it did little or no damage.

"Upon this I threw down my pen and started upon my feet, remaining a moment in suspense, whether I should stay in the apartment or run into the street, as the danger in both places seemed equal; and still flattering myself that this tremor might produce no other effects than such inconsiderable ones as had been felt at Madeira; but in a moment I was roused from my dream, being instantly stunned with a most horrid crash, as if every edifice in the city had tumbled down at once. The house I was in shook with such violence, that the upper stories immediately fell, and though my apartment (which was the first floor) did not then share the same fate, yet every thing was thrown out of its place in such a manner, that it was with no small difficulty I kept my feet, and expected nothing less than to be soon crushed to death, as the walls continued rocking to and fro in the frightfullest manner, opening in several places; large stones falling down on every side from the cracks, and the ends of most of the rafters starting out from the roof. To add to this terrifying scene, the sky in a moment became so gloomy that I could

now distinguish no particular object; it was an Egyptian darkness indeed, such as might be felt; owing, no doubt, to the prodigious clouds of dust and lime raised from so violent a concussion, and, as some reported, to sulphureous exhalations, but this I cannot affirm; however it is certain I found myself almost choked for near ten minutes."

During the whole of November the shocks continued to be violent. Lisbon was reduced to a heap of ruins. The loss of lives was computed at upwards of 30,000. In the lower part of the town not a street could be traced but by the fragments of broken walls, and the accumulation of ashes and rubbish. Palaces, churches, convents and private houses, appeared as if the angel of desolation had just passed by. The following cut gives a faint idea of the ruins of the church of St. Pauls. The falling of this church buried a great part of the congregation, which was very numerous, beneath its walls.



At night the city was deserted by the surviving inhabitants, and only infested by robbers who proceeded in gangs to break open and plunder. The heights around Lisbon were so covered with tents, that they seemed a continued encampment. The great aqueduct over the valley of Alcantara remained entirely unshaken, though its height is so great and its line of arches so extensive. It was remarked, that during the month of November, the tides did not observe their proverbial regularity.

The terrors of a conflagration were added to those of the earthquake. On the night of the 1st of November, the whole city appeared in a blaze, which was so bright, that persons could see to read by it. It continued burning for six days, without the least attempt being made to stop it. The people were so dejected and terrified, that they made no exertion even to save their own property. Dead bodies remained unburied in the churches, in the streets, and among the rubbish. The scene inspired melancholy even into dumb animals.

The property of all kinds consumed or engulfed was of immense value. Many years elapsed before Lisbon recovered from the calamity, and the traces of it are still visible in many places.

When we read the lives of distinguished men in any department, we find them almost always celebrated for the amount of labor they could perform. Demosthenes, Julius Cæsar, Henry the Fourth of France, Lord Bacon, Sir Isaac Newton, Franklin, Washington, Napoleon,—different as they were in their intellectual and moral qualities,—were all renowned as hard-workers. We read how many days they could support the fatigues of a march; how early they rose; how late they watched; how many hours they spent in the field, in the cabinet, in the court; how many secretaries they kept employed; in short how hard they worked.—*Everett's Discourse.*



HARBOR AND TOWN OF MUSCAT.

Muscat, the principal port on the eastern coast of Arabia, is under the government of an independent chief. The harbor, which lies in latitude $23^{\circ} 38'$ north, and longitude $59^{\circ} 15'$ east, is formed by a small cove, or semicircular bay, environed on all sides, except at its entrance, by lofty, steep and barren rocks, and extending not more than half a mile in length from the town, at the head of the cove, to the outer anchorage, in the mouth of it; and not more than a quarter of a mile in breadth from fort to fort, which guard the entrance on the east and west. The entrance to this cove is from the northward, and the water is deep, shoaling quickly from thirty to fifteen fathoms at the cove's mouth. Ships entering it from the northward, with a fair wind, should go no farther in than ten fathoms before anchoring, as the ground does not hold well; and within this, there is but little room to drive.

The town of Muscat is seated near the shore, at the bottom of the hills. It is of an irregular form and meanly built. It is walled around, with some few round towers at the principal angles, after the Arabian manner; but this is only towards the land-side, the part facing the sea being entirely open. The population is about ten thousand. Of these, about nine-tenths are pure Arabs and Mohammedans; the remainder are principally Hindoos. There are only three or four Jews, and no Christians of any description resident in the place. The duties on commerce are five per cent. *ad valorem*, paid by strangers of every denomination on all goods brought into the port. There is no export duty.

The Custom House, which is opposite to the landing place both for passengers and goods, is merely an open square of twenty feet, with benches around it, one side opening to the sea, and the roof covered in for shelter from the sun. This landing-place is also the Commercial Exchange, where it is usual, during the cool of the morning, to see the principal merchants assembled, some sitting on old rusty cannons, others on condemned spars, and others in the midst of coils of ropes, exposed on the wharf, stroking their beards, and seeming to be the greatest of idlers, instead of men of business; notwithstanding which, when a

stranger gets among them, he finds commerce to engross all their conversation and their thoughts.

In the town, horses are seldom used, but camels and asses are the animals mounted by all classes of those who ride. The tranquillity that reigns throughout the place, and the tolerance and civility shown to strangers of every denomination, are to be attributed to the inoffensive disposition of the people, rather than to the efficiency of a police, there being no regular establishment of that kind here. Whole cargoes of merchandise, and property of every description are left to lie open on the wharf and in the streets, without fear of plunder. Every thing is favorable to the personal liberty, the safety and the accommodation of strangers; and the Arabs of Muscat may be considered, as far as manners go, as the most civilized of their countrymen.

Provisions and refreshments for shipping may be easily obtained here. Meat, vegetables and fruit are all abundant in their season, of excellent quality; and fish are nowhere more plentiful or more delicious than here. The water is also pure and wholesome. Deficiencies in ships' crews may also be made up by Arab sailors, who are always to be found here, and are unquestionably braver, hardier, and better seamen, than the Lascars of India, though they are sometimes difficult to be kept in order.

LINES BY BISHOP HORNE.

Sweet day, so cool, so calm, so bright,
Bridal of earth and sky,
The dew shall weep thy fall to-night,
For thou, alas! must die!

Sweet rose, in air whose odours wave
And color charms the eye,
Thy root is ever in its grave,
And thou, alas! must die!

Sweet spring, of days and roses made,
Whose charms for beauty vie,
Thy days depart, thy roses fade—
Thou, too, alas! must die!

Be wise, then, Christian, while you may
For swiftly time is flying;
The thoughtless man may laugh to-day
To-morrow may be dying!

The Pacha of Egypt.—The present enterprising Pacha of Egypt, like all men who have succeeded in accomplishing great designs, is remarkably attentive to have his orders executed rapidly, no matter about what. An amusing instance of this activity occurred a few years ago. Having observed one of the European visitors wearing shoes, such as are usually worn in this country, and tied in a military fashion, he borrowed them as a pattern, and in less than twelve hours, a dozen pairs were ready; these were despatched instantly to Cairo, with a peremptory order, that 40,000 pairs should be ready in a month. All the shoemakers in Cairo were instantly set to work, and the order completed in due time.

Destructive Shell.—An English paper states that a most deadly and destructive weapon, one of such importance that the projector expects it will wholly change the mode of European warfare, is in all probability by this time employed against the Miguelites. It is a shell constructed by an Englishman named Warner, a name not unknown to divers high personages during the last war. Mr. Warner has contrived an engine so tremendous that some distinguished individuals have refused to countenance any thing so fatal to human life. It may be employed by sea as well as land, and would seem capable of destroying, in a few hours, the finest fleet that ever ploughed the ocean. Used against shipping it is fired point-blank like a bullet. It adheres to whatever it strikes, and exploding, the substance of which it is formed resolves itself into flame, which like the Greek fire, cannot be checked by water, and which indeed, is believed to be absolutely extinguishable.—The shell has no fuse; and it explodes with a violent concussion, scattering death wherever any portion of it falls; for if the least drop of the molten metal should fall on the human frame, its venom is such that death is certain. Mr. Warner offered to sell the invention to the English government. They, however, were not so sufficiently convinced of its importance as to feel justified in offering him what he considered an adequate reward for the many years of toil and study which he has devoted to bring this awful invention to perfection. He has seized the opportunity offered by the present situation of things in Portugal to make his experiments in favor of the Constitutionalists on a grand scale, that Ministers may see he is not a mere pretender. On going out he made known his object to Admiral Sartorius, but was coolly received. The Admiral wished Mr. Warner to fall in with his fleet, but it did not accord with the views of the latter to let Sartorius have his services while he was kept in the back ground, and he therefore determined on seeing the Emperor himself, and forthwith sought him at Oporto. He was graciously received by Don Pedro, to whom he explained his views through Sir John Milley Doyle, who acted as interpreter. The Emperor entered fully into the subject, approved of the plans of Mr. W., and consented to make trial of the shells which he had brought out. It was arranged that a fort which it had previously been deemed impossible to take, should be attacked—Mr. Warner stipulating that he should be allowed to use his own means in his way, with the assistance of 600 men. The result remains to be seen.

The Georgia Hurricane.—The Milledgeville Journal of the 14th instant says, in relation to the late hurricane which swept over that portion of the State of Georgia,—“It is represented as the most extensive ever known. Its ravages in the western counties have been awful, and the injury to woodlands and plantations in many places irreparable. Its general course was from north west to south east. Beyond Flint River, in places, whole forests of the finest and best timbered lands have been entirely prostrated—and plantations so laid waste as to bring almost complete despair for the present year's crop. Its attack was various—running in veins—in some places entirely sparing the country, and in others, prostrating it for miles together. Much injury has been done to houses, fences and stock, and in several instances lives have been lost.”

Lake of Vitriol.—There is, in the island of Java, a volcano, called Idienne, from which the Dutch East India Company have been often supplied with sulphur for the manufacture of gun-powder. At the foot of this volcano is a vast natural manufactory of that acid commonly called oil of vitriol, although it is there largely diluted with water. It is a lake about 1,200 French feet long; the water is warm, and of a greenish white color, and charged with acid. The taste of this liquid is sour, pungent, and caustic; it kills all the fish of a river into which it flows, gives violent colics to those who drink it, and destroys all the vegetation on its banks.

Caligula.—At an exhibition of gladiators, he caused the survivors to be sold by auction. While so employed, he ob-

served that one Aponius was dozing in his seat, when turning to the auctioneer, he desired him “on no account to neglect the biddings of the gentleman who was nodding to him from the benches!” Finally, thirteen gladiators were knocked down to the unconscious bidder for nearly 73,000.

LACONICS.

Fortune is painted blind, that she may not blush to behold the fools who belong to her.

Some men get on in the world on the same principle that a sweep passes uninterruptedly through a crowd.

Fanatics think men like bulls—they must be baited to madness ere they are in a fit condition to die.

Some connoisseurs would give a hundred pounds for the painted head of a beggar, who would threaten the living mendicant with the stocks.

If you boast of a contempt for the world, avoid getting into debt. It is giving to gnats the fangs of vipers.

Fame is represented bearing a trumpet. Would not the picture be truer, were she to hold a handful of dust?

Fishermen, in order to handle eels securely, first cover them with dirt. In like manner does detraction strive to grasp excellence.

VARIETIES.

Among the recent deaths in England is that of General Tarleton, so notorious during our revolutionary war, for his partisan feats and ferocious mode of warfare in the Carolinas. He was a favorite officer and intimate friend of Lord Cornwallis.

A silver mine of great product and extent, has been newly discovered by a woodcutter, in the district of Coquimbo (Chili) heretofore famous for its copper mines. It is said that fifty veins of this mine had been traced, and that in the richness of its product it promises to rival Potosi.

In the month of July last, while the people were celebrating Mass in the church of Sigchos, near Tacunga, in the republic of Ecuador, South America, on the day of the solemn festival *del Corpus*, fire was communicated to the building by means of a rocket. In the rush of the audience to the door, it became shut, and, the whole congregation perished in the flames except the Curate, who escaped through a window! The number of lives lost was estimated at more than five hundred, besides children.

The St. Petersburg Gazette states that there is living near Polock on the frontiers of Lithuania, an old man named Demetrius Crabowski, who is now 168 years old. This Russian Methuselah has always led the humble but tranquil life of a Shepherd, assisted by his two sons, the eldest of whom, Paul, is 120, and the younger, Anatole, 97 years old.

By a statement presented at the annual town meeting of New-Bedford, it appears, that the present population of that flourishing place is 9260; showing an increase of 1768 since the census of 1830, and of 5343 since 1820.

By the news from Constantinople, it appears that an armistice has been concluded between the Porte and Ibrahim Pacha. It is considered certain that such an arrangement will be made as to put a final stop to hostilities.

The cholera has been making terrible havoc in Havana. On the 18th of March, the number of deaths was 600, and on the 21st, it was supposed to be not less than 400. The population of Havana is estimated at 150,000; so that the mortality is greater than has been witnessed in any of the cities of the United States. Among the deaths, we regret to notice that of Mr. Shaler, formerly our consul at Algiers.

Accounts from Mexico state that Gen. Santa Anna has been elected President; Gen. Farias, Vice President of the Republic, and Lorenzo de Lalena Governor of the city of Mexico.

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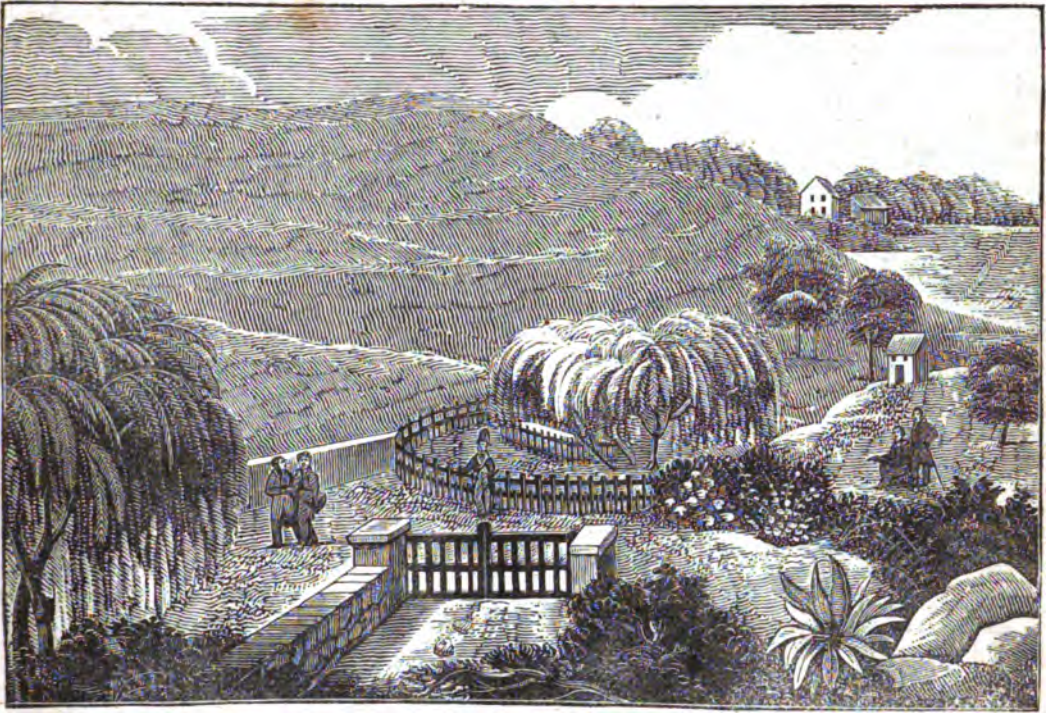
THE PEOPLE'S MAGAZINE.

PUBLISHED EVERY OTHER SATURDAY

No. 4.

SATURDAY, MAY 4, 1833.

VOL. I.



The Tomb of Napoleon.

ST. HELENA.

The island of St. Helena stands entirely detached from any group, and is about 1200 miles from the nearest land, on the eastern coast of Southern Africa. An imperceptible point in the Atlantic Ocean, this rock is nine leagues in its greatest circumference. Steep shores form for it a natural and nearly impregnable rampart. It is divided into two unequal parts by a chain of mountains intersected by deep valleys. The coast is very barren in appearance, but a rich verdure covers the interior of the island, even to the tops of the mountains, from which springs of pure and wholesome water exude on every side. The cultivation of almost all the fruits and commodities of Europe and Asia, succeeds here. The pasturage feeds a great many oxen, sheep and goats, a resource highly valued by navigators.

It has a population of about two thousand persons, of which five hundred are whites, and 1,500 are negroes, the garrison not included. A company has recently been formed for fitting out some whale ships from this place.

Jamestown, on the north-west coast, is the only city and port of St. Helena. The approaches are defended by good fortifications. It being the ordinary place of refreshment for ships returning from India, it often presents the appearance of a noisy market place. At the time of its discovery in 1502, the interior was only one large forest, and the gum-tree even grew on the edges of the rocks suspended over the sea. Fernando Lopez, a Portuguese renegade, who in 1513 obtained the favor of living in exile here, first stocked the island with

goats, hogs, poultry, and other useful animals. The Portuguese having in time deserted it for their establishments on the southeast coast of Africa, it was taken possession of by the Dutch, and abandoned by them in 1651 for the Cape of Good Hope. The English afterwards established themselves here. It was granted to the East India Company by Charles II., and was the only resting-place in the Atlantic possessed by them for the refreshment of their ships. The island is ten and a half miles long by $6\frac{1}{2}$ broad, and about 28 miles in circumference.

The principal plain in the island, called *Long-wood*, situated in the eastern part, has become celebrated by the residence of Napoleon Bonaparte. The illustrious captive arrived at St. Helena in November, 1815, and died there May 5th, 1821. The spot where he lies 'quietly inurned' is in a deep valley, surrounded by a small iron railing, and covered with a coarse brown stone, lying about eight inches above the level of the ground, without an inscription. His sepulchre is overhung by three weeping willows of a very large size; and a few yards to the south of it is a spring from which he used to take his water. This interesting spot is distant from Jamestown about two miles and a half, and is approached by an excellent road connecting the two places. The body of Napoleon is deposited in a mahogany coffin, which is placed within three other cases: on the external one is the inscription, *General of the French*. By his side lies the sword which he wore at Austerlitz.

Recent visitors to Bonaparte's tomb describe the fresh planting of a set of young willows around it, cuttings from the parent trees, by the present

governor, as the old ones are fast going to decay. Longwood is now a farm-house, and no part but the former billiard room remains inhabitable; the other apartments being converted into stables, granaries, &c. The new Longwood House, which is an excellent dwelling, has never been occupied, and is apparently fast falling into ruins.

THE SCENERY OF THE OHIO.

The heart must indeed be cold that would not glow among scenes like these. Rightly did the French call this stream *La Belle Rivière*, (the beautiful river). The sprightly Canadian, plying his oar in cadence with the wild notes of the boat-song, could not fail to find his heart enlivened by the beautiful symmetry of the Ohio. Its current is always graceful, and its shores every where romantic. Every thing here is on a large scale. The eye of the traveller is continually regaled with magnificent scenes. Here are no pigmy mounds dignified by the name of mountains; no rivulets swelled into rivers. Nature has worked with a rapid but masterly hand; every touch is bold, and the whole is grand as well as beautiful; while room is left for art to embellish and fertilize that which nature has created with a thousand capabilities. There is much sameness in the character of the scenery; but that sameness is in itself delightful, as it consists in the recurrence of noble traits, which are too pleasing ever to be viewed with indifference; like the regular features which we sometimes find in the face of a beautiful woman, their charm consists in their own intrinsic gracefulness, rather than in the variety of their expressions. The Ohio, has not the sprightly, fanciful wildness of the Niagara, the St. Lawrence, or the Susquehanna, whose impetuous torrents, rushing over beds of rocks, or dashing against the jutting cliffs, arrest the ear by their murmurings, and delight the eye with their eccentric wanderings. Neither is it like the Hudson, margined at one spot by the meadow and the village, and overhung at another by threatening precipices and stupendous mountains. It has a wild, solemn, silent sweetness, peculiar to itself. The noble stream, clear, smooth, and unruffled, sweeps onward with regular majestic force. Continually changing its course, as it rolls from vale to vale, it always winds with dignity, and, avoiding those acute angles which are observable in less powerful streams, sweeps round in graceful bends, as if disdaining the opposition to which Nature forces it to submit. On each side rise the romantic hills, piled on each other to a tremendous height; and between them are deep, abrupt, silent glens, which at a distance seem inaccessible to the human foot; while the whole is covered with timber of a gigantic size, and a luxuriant foliage of the deepest hues. Throughout this scene there is a pleasing solitariness, that speaks peace to the mind, and invites the fancy to soar abroad among the tranquil haunts of meditation. Sometimes the splashing of the oar is heard, and the boatman's song awakens the surrounding echoes; but the most usual music is that of the native songsters, whose melody steals pleasingly on the ear, with every modulation, at all hours. The poet, in sketching these solitudes, might, by throwing his scene a few years back, add the light canoe, and the war-song of the Indians; but the peaceful traveller rejoices in the absence of that which would bring danger, as well as variety within his reach.—*Hall's Letters from the West.*

STEAM ENGINES IN 1543.

It appears from a late valuable publication, Navarrete's *Collection of Spanish Voyages and Discoveries*, that the first known experiment of propelling a vessel by the agency of steam, was made at Barcelona, more than eighty-five years before the idea of procuring motion by means of it was first started by Brancas in Italy; more than a century before this power was applied to any useful purpose by the marquis of Worcester in England; and near three centuries before Fulton, adapting and combining the inventions of a host of contemporary mechanics, successfully solved the same wonderful problem in the United States. Singular, however, as the fact may be, it is fully established by various documents lately found in the archives of Simancas, and is so circumstantially stated as to be incontrovertible.

In the year 1543, a certain sea-officer, called Blasco de Gavay, offered to exhibit before the emperor Charles V. a machine by means of which a vessel should be made to move, without the assistance of either sails or oars. Though the proposal appeared ridiculous, the man was so much in earnest, that the emperor appointed a commission to witness and report upon the experiment. The experiment was made the 17th of June, 1543, on board a vessel called the *Trinidad*, of two hundred barrels' burden, which had lately arrived with wheat from Colibre. The vessel was seen at a given moment to move forward, and turn about at pleasure, without sail or oar, or human agency, and without any visible mechanism, except a huge boiler of hot water, and a complicated combination of wheels and paddles.

The assembled multitude were filled with astonishment and admiration. The harbor of Barcelona resounded with plaudits; and the commissioners, who shared in the general enthusiasm, all made favorable reports to the emperor, except only the treasurer Ravago. This man, from some unknown cause, was prejudiced against the inventor and his machine. He took great pains to undervalue it, stating, among other things, that it could be of little use, since it only propelled the vessel two leagues in three hours; that it was very expensive and complicated, and that there was great danger of the boiler's bursting frequently. The experiment over, Gavay collected his machinery, and having deposited the wooden part in the royal arsenal, carried the rest to his own house.

Notwithstanding the invidious representations of Ravago, Gavay was applauded for his invention, and taken into favor by the emperor, who promoted him one grade, gave him two hundred thousand *maravedises*, and ordered the jealous treasurer to pay all the expenses of the experiment. But Charles was then taken up with some military expedition, and the occasion of conferring an inestimable benefit on mankind was neglected for the business of bloodshed and devastation; while the honor which Barcelona might have received from perfecting this noble discovery was reserved for a city which had not yet started in the career of existence.

The fact that a vessel was propelled by steam as early as the sixteenth century, thus rendered certain, the question next occurs, whether it in any way detracts from the honor due to Fulton, not for having made the first successful application of steam to purposes of navigation, (for he was even anticipated by Fitch, in the United States) but for hav-

ing brought it into use over the whole civilized world. By no means. This experiment at Barcelona, owing to the absence of journals and newspapers, those modern vehicles and wings of intelligence, was unknown to the world generally, at the time of making it, as it ever was to Fulton. And, besides, who can tell but that in like manner many inventions, which constitute at once the pride and profit of the present age, may have existed centuries ago, in countries of forgotten civilisation.—*A Year in Spain by a young American.*

ON THE VARIATIONS IN THE WEATHER.

There is scarcely any one subject upon which mankind display more shortsightedness and inconsistency than they do upon the weather. When exceedingly fine and pleasant weather cheers us, and makes all things around us seem doubly beautiful, we are almost sure to exclaim that we wish such weather could last forever!

In exclaiming thus we consult only our feelings; and leave our interests wholly out of consideration. It would undoubtedly be very delightful to bask in eternal sunshine, and be fanned by perpetual zephyrs. But though this uniform pleasantness of season would be very agreeable to our feelings, would it be equally serviceable in maturing those various productions of nature from which we derive nourishment while we are in health, and mitigation and cure when we are diseased? Many of the most valuable of our articles of food, and of our medicinal roots and shrubs, owe their perfection to weather which is as little soothing as possible to our taste and feelings. The comparatively valueless beauties of the hot-house would grow wild and untended in all parts of the world were the weather always alike and every where mild. But we should pay dearly for those beautiful plants and flowers did we sacrifice for them the less comely but more serviceable alimentary and medicinal productions of the field and garden. If an equal temperature were perpetually kept up in all places, and during all times, two-thirds, at least, of our natural productions would disappear from the world. Instead of each nation and each country possessing something peculiar to itself and valuable to all, all nations would both possess and be destitute of precisely the same number and kind of articles. To say nothing of the deplorable state to which mankind would be reduced were they deprived of the largest portion of the valuable things which they now enjoy, this condition of things would put an instant and inevitable end to commercial intercourse between distant people. We, as well as the natives of Hindostan, should have spices, but we should be destitute of those articles which we now have in such abundance, that over and above supplying our own wants, we are enabled also to supply those of the dusky denizens of the East.

Moreover, the most terrible consequences would result from an equalisation of the earth's temperature. Those wild and rustling winds which we so much complain of, and which mainly arise from the different temperature of different portions of our globe, would cease, indeed, to annoy us with their howling rudeness. But what would be the effect of the consequent stagnation of the air? Why, instead of being the most refreshing and the most healthful ministers to our health and comfort, it would become putrefied. We could not avoid inhaling it, yet to inhale it would be instant disease

and speedy death. No art, no precaution, no exertion, could avert a terrible and universal pestilence, in which, men and animals alike would perish without hope of escape, and without alleviation of their terrible and fatal agonies.

How very little reflection suffices to show us how thoughtless and short-sighted the mortals are; and how wise and benevolent is that Omnipotent Being, who knows what we need better than we ourselves do, and who makes all things work together for our good! We cannot turn our attention to a single subject without rejoicing that we have God to watch over us, and to protect us against the silliness of our own wishes, and the selfishness, the unwise selfishness, of our own hearts.



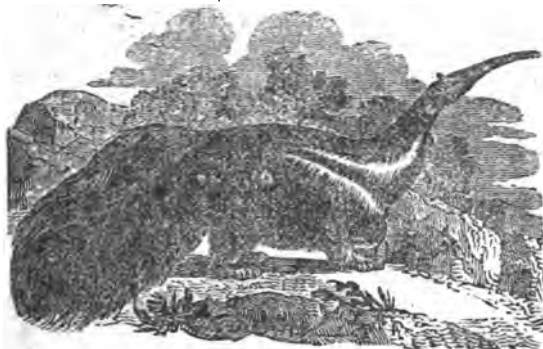
THE SPOTTED KANGAROO.

There exist several species of the Kangaroo, all of which are natives of New Holland. The habits of this animal have been well described by Mr. Cunningham, in his "Two Years' Residence in New South Wales." We make the following extracts from his account:

The Kangaroos make no use of their short fore legs except in grazing, when they rise upon them and their tail, bring their hind legs forward, and go nibbling upon all fours, pulling up occasionally some favorite plant with their fore paw, and sitting up bold and erect upon their hind legs and tail, while they slowly bite and nibble it, shifting it from paw to paw, like a boy protracting his repast on a juicy apple. When chased, they hop upon their hind legs, bounding onwards at a most amazing rate, the tail wagging as they leap, and serving them for a balance. They will bound over gullies, and down declivities, the distance of thirty yards, and fly right over the tops of low brushwood; so that, in such places, dogs stand very little chance with them; but in a clear open country soon tire them out. The dogs seize them generally by the hip, and throw them over; then fasten upon their throats and finish them. But few dogs will attack a large Kangaroo singly, some of the two hundred weight size often hopping off with three or four assailants hanging about them; and I was informed of one that actually carried a man to some distance. When a dog gets up close to a large Kangaroo, it will often sit upon its tail and haunches, and fight the dog, turning adroitly round and round, so as always to face him, and pushing him off with the fore paws; or it will seize and hug him like a bear, ripping him up with the long sharp claw on its powerful hind leg. They are constantly indeed cutting, and often killing, dogs with this terrible weapon, which will tear out the bowels at a single kick: and a large Kangaroo is, on this account, very dangerous even for a man to approach, when set at bay.

The Kangaroo may be domesticated. "One of the largest tame Kangaroos I have seen in this country (says Mr. Cunningham) is domesticated, and a mischievous wag he is, creeping and snuffing cautiously towards a stranger, with such an innocently expressive countenance, that roguery could never be surmised to exist under it; when, having obtained as he thinks, a sufficient introduction, he claps his fore paws on your shoulders, as if to caress you, and raising himself suddenly upon his tail, administers such a well put push with his hind legs, that it is two to one but he drives you heels over head! this is all done in what he considers facetious play, with a view of giving you a hint to examine your pockets, and see what *bon bons* you have got for him, as he munches cakes and comfits with epicurean *gout*; and if the door is ajar, he will gravely take his station behind your chair at meal time, like a lackey, giving you an admonitory kick every now and then, if you fail to help him as well as yourself."

THE ANT-EATER.



There are several animals distinguished by the common name of Ant-eaters, which differ much in form. They are, however, all distinguished by one characteristic; which is, that as they feed wholly on insects, they have no teeth. The tongue is the only instrument with which they seize their food, and it is long, wormlike, and covered with a glutinous moisture. From the tip of the snout to the end of the tail, the great Ant-eater is sometimes eight or nine feet in length. It is covered with very coarse and shaggy hair. Its motions are slow, but it swims well.

This creature is a native of Brazil and Guiana, and it lives wholly on ants, woodlice, and wild bees. These it collects by thrusting its tongue into their holes, and having penetrated every part of the nest, withdraws it into its mouth loaded with prey.—Its legs are so strong, that few animals can extricate themselves from its gripe. It is said to be formidable even to the panthers of America; and sometimes fixes itself upon them in such a manner, that both of them fall and perish together; for its obstinacy is so great, that it will not relinquish its hold of an adversary even after it is dead.—It may, however, be tamed. The flesh has a strong disagreeable taste, but is eaten by the Indians.

A recent number of the Salem Register says, that M. Buffett, a distinguished French Naturalist, has arrived at that port, with a rare and valuable collection of birds and quadrupeds. He has spent several years in travelling through the states of South America, particularly Brazil, and in his researches has discovered much to add to the cabinet of the Naturalist. Among the quadrupeds

on board the Clio is a female Ant-Bear or Ant-Buter. This animal is seldom if ever seen in this country, and we believe this is the second one that has lived to reach here. It is about seven feet in length and two high, and is perfectly harmless, although it has strength sufficient to master a tiger. When she lies down to repose, her tail serves as a shield from the weather, it being large enough to cover the whole body—when viewed in this situation she resembles a straw mat spread upon the ground. Its food consists entirely of eggs. M. Buffett has the carcass of the young, which died on the passage, preserved in spirits, which is a great curiosity.

Curious Typographical Anecdote.—It is well known to literary people, that, in preparing works for the press, it is usual for the printer, after the proof sheets have been seen by the author, to go over them again, and clear them of what are called typographical errors, such as wrong spellings, inaccuracies of punctuation, and similar imperfections. In performing this office for a celebrated northern critic and editor, a printer, now dead, was in the habit of introducing a much greater number of commas than it appeared to the author the sense required. The case was provoking, but did not produce a formal remonstrance, until Mr. W—n himself accidentally afforded the learned editor an opportunity of signifying his dissatisfaction with the plethora of punctuation under which his compositions were made to labor. The worthy printer, coming to a passage one day which he did not understand, very naturally took it into his head that it was unintelligible, and transmitted it to his employer, with a remark on the margin, that "there appeared some obscurity in it." The sheet was immediately returned, with this reply, which we give *verbatim*. "Mr. J. sees no obscurity here, except such as arises from the quantity of commas, which Mr. W—n seems to keep in a pepper-box beside him, for the purpose of dusting all his proofs with."

American Vines.—There is perhaps no vegetable in America that strikes the mind with greater surprise than the wild vine. I have seen one with a stem nine inches in diameter, and heard of others measuring eleven inches. Some detached trees have their tops closely wreathed with the vines in a manner that forms an elegant and umbrageous canopy, into which the eye cannot penetrate. In the woods they overtop the tallest trees, and from thence hang the pendulous twigs almost to the ground, or pass their ramifications from the branches of one tree to others, overshadowing a considerable space. In many instances their roots are at the distance of several feet from any tree, and their tops attached to branches at the height of sixty or eighty feet, without coming in contact with the trunks of trees, or any intermediate support. To make the case plain, I have only to say, that the positions of some of those vines have a near resemblance to the stays, and some other ropes of a ship. The question, how they have erected themselves in this manner, is frequently put. Boats that descend the Ohio are often moored without any other cable than a small vine. If a notch is cut in the stem of the vine in the spring season, clear and tasteless water runs out, not in drops, but in a continued stream. I have several times quenched my thirst from sources of this kind.—*Flint's America.*

A True Joe Miller.—In the time of Joe Miller, there was an old deaf player of the name of Cross, who, being very vain, took every pains to conceal his infirmity. Joe, walking along Fleet Street with a friend, saw Cross on the opposite side, and told his acquaintance he should see some fine sport. So, beckoning Cross with his finger, he opened his mouth wide, and began to assume the attitude and gestures of one who bawls very loud to a distant object. Cross, thinking that Miller had hallooed to him, and taking that as too broad a signification of his infirmity, came puffing across the street as hard as he could, and "What the devil," cried he to Joe, "do you make such a noise for? do you think one cannot hear?"

Razors.—The term razor as applied to the instrument which we shave with, is supposed to be derived from the word *raze*, to cut or pull down, to leave nothing standing. Razors are mentioned by Homer. Before English manufactures excelled in cutlery, razors were imported from Palermo in Italy, or rather Sicily.



(a) (b)
CATCHING TURTLES ON THE COAST OF CUBA.

It is not improbable that some of our readers, who reside near a great commercial port, may have seen the landing of a cargo of strange looking animals, which, turned upon their backs, appear the most helpless of creatures, and in this condition may have naturally led the spectator to imagine that they are incapable of removing from place to place, and have therefore little enjoyment of existence. These creatures, to use the language of the epicure, are fine "lively turtles"—the term "lively" being understood to mean that they have suffered little from a long voyage—that they are in good health—and that the "green fat," the glory of aldermen, is in the most perfect state of excellence. Without asking our readers to feel any very strong interest in the prospects of high living which the arrival of a cargo of turtles offers to many individuals who are somewhat too much inclined to set a high value upon the gratifications of the palate, we may be able to satisfy a rational curiosity as to the habits of these singular animals, which offer some higher benefits to mankind than that of furnishing the most costly luxury of a city feast.

The turtle and the tortoise belong to the same group of reptiles—in fact the turtle is a tortoise which principally inhabits the water, and is only found occasionally on the land. The two varieties represented in the above plate are the Green Tortoise (a), and the Loggerhead Tortoise (b). The former is the species chiefly used for food. It is found, in great numbers, on the coasts of all the islands and continents of the torrid zone. The shoals which surround these coasts are covered with marine plants; and in these water pastures, which are near enough to the surface to be readily seen by the naked eye in calm weather, a prodigious abundance of animals, mostly amphibious,

feed, and amongst them multitudes of tortoises. Dampier, the old voyager, describing the Gallapagos Islands, says, "There are good wide channels between these islands fit for ships to pass; and in some places shoal water, where there grows plenty of turtle grass; therefore these islands are plentifully stored with sea turtle." The tortoise, whether of the land or water species, is, as most of our readers know, protected, both on the back and belly, by a hollow shield, which is open at each end, for the issuing of the head and fore-feet at one time, and the tail and hind-feet at another.

The upper shield is termed the back-plate, or buckler; the lower shield the breast-plate. The middle of the buckler, in most of the species, is covered by numerous pieces or plates resembling horn in texture and composition; and the beautiful substance known by the name of tortoise-shell is obtained principally from a small species called the Hawksbill. The feet of the marine tortoises are much longer than those of the land, and their toes are united by a membrane, so that they swim with great facility. The head, feet, and tail are covered with small scales. The jaws of the wide mouth are not provided with teeth, but the jaw-bones are very hard and strong, and being at the same time very rough, the animal is enabled to consume its vegetable food with ease, and at the same time to crush the shell-fish on which the marine species also feed. The green tortoise attains an enormous size and weight; some individuals measuring six or seven feet in length from the tip of the nose to the extremity of the tail, by three or four feet broad, and weighing as much as eight hundred pounds. Dampier says, "I heard of a monstrous green turtle once taken at Port Royal, in the bay of Campeachy, that was four feet deep from the back to the belly,

and the belly six feet broad. Captain Rocky's son, of about nine or ten years of age, went in it (meaning in the shell) as in a boat, on board his father's ship about a quarter of a mile from the shore." The green tortoise commonly weighs from two to three hundred pounds.

The female turtle deposits her eggs on the loose sand, and leaves them to be hatched by the influence of the sun's rays. These eggs are round, and two or three inches in diameter; they are covered with a membrane something like wet parchment. They are hatched in less than a month after they are laid; and in about eight or ten days the young reptiles creep to the water.

The wood-cut at the head of this article represents the manner in which the marine tortoises are caught on the coast of Cuba, and on parts of the South American continent. The Count de Lacepede, in his History of Oviporous Quadrupeds, has described the various modes in which the business of tortoise-catching is carried on; and we shall conclude this notice with an abstract of his account. It must be remarked that the turtle is a most important addition to the ordinary mode of victualing a ship; and that, therefore, the war in which the human race engages against them is rendered absolutely necessary by the wants of navigators.

"In spite of the darkness which is chosen by the female tortoises for concealment when employed in laying their eggs, they cannot effectually escape from the pursuit of their enemies: the fishers wait for them on the shore, at the beginning of the night, especially when it is moonlight, and, either as they come from the sea, or as they return after laying their eggs, they either despatch them with blows of a club, or turn them quickly over on their backs, not giving them time either to defend themselves, or to blind their assailants, by throwing up the sand with their fins. When very large, it requires the efforts of several men to turn them over, and they must often employ the assistance of handspikes or levers for that purpose. The buckler of this species is so flat as to render it impossible for the animal to recover the recumbent posture, when it is once turned on its back.

"A small number of fishers may turn over forty or fifty tortoises, full of eggs, in less than three hours. During the day, they are employed in securing those which they had caught in the preceding night. They cut them up, and salt the flesh and the eggs. Sometimes they may extract above thirty pints of a yellow or greenish oil from one large individual; this is employed for burning, or, when fresh, is used with different kinds of food. Sometimes they drag the tortoises they have caught, on their backs, to enclosures, in which they are reserved for occasional use.

"The tortoise fishers, from the West Indies and the Bahamas, who catch these animals on the coasts of Cuba and its adjoining islands, particularly the Caymanas, usually complete their cargoes in six weeks or two months; they afterwards return to their own islands, with the salted turtle, which is used for food both by the whites and the negroes. This salt turtle is in as great request in the American colonies, as the salted cod of Newfoundland is in many parts of Europe; and the fishing is followed by all these colonists, particularly by the British, in small vessels, on various parts of the coast of Spanish America, and the neighboring desert islands.

"The green tortoise is likewise often caught at

sea in calm weather, and in moon-light nights. For this purpose two men go together in a small boat, which is rowed by one of them, while the other is provided with a harpoon, similar to that used for killing whales. Whenever they discover a large tortoise, by the froth which it occasions on the water in rising to the surface, they hasten to the spot as quickly as possible, to prevent it from escaping. The harpooner immediately throws his harpoon with sufficient force to penetrate through the buckler to the flesh; the tortoise instantly dives, and the fisher gives out a line, which is fixed to the harpoon, and, when the tortoise is spent with loss of blood, it is hauled into the boat or on shore."

THE STORMY PETREL.



[From "English Songs and other Poems, by Barry Cornwall."]

A thousand miles from land are we,
Tossing about on the roaring sea,
From billow to bounding billow cast,
Like fleecy snow on the stormy blast:
The sails are scattered abroad, like weeds,
The strong masts shake, like quivering reeds,
The mighty cables, and iron chains,
The hull, which all earthly strength disdains,
They strain and they crack, and hearts like stone
Their natural hard proud strength disown.

Up and down! up and down!
From the base of the wave to the billow's crown,
And amidst the flashing and feathery foam
The Stormy Petrel finds a home,—
A home, if such a place may be,
For her who lives on the wide wide sea,
On the craggy ice, in the frozen air,
And only seeketh her rocky lair
To warm her young, and to teach them spring
At once o'er the waves on their stormy wing!

O'er the deep! O'er the deep!
Where the whale, and the shark, and the sword-fish sleep,
Outflying the blast and the driving rain,
The Petrel telleth her tale—in vain;
For the mariner curseth the warning bird
Who bringeth him news of the storms unheard!
Ah! thus does the prophet, of good or ill,
Meet hate from the creatures he serveth still:
Yet he ne'er falters:—So, Petrel! spring
Once more o'er the waves on thy stormy wing!

Popular Poison.—When pure ardent spirits are taken into the stomach, they cause irritation, which is evinced by warmth and pain experienced in that organ; and next, inflammation of the delicate coats of this part, and sometimes gangrenes. They act in the same manner as poisons. Besides the local injury they produce, they act on the nerves of the stomach which run to the brain, and, if taken in large quantities, cause insensibility, stupor, irregular convulsive action, difficulty of breathing, profound sleep, and often sudden death.—The habitual use of ardent spirits causes a slow inflammation of the stomach and liver, which proceeds steadily, but is often undiscovered, till too late for relief.—*London Medical Surgical Journal*



CAPTURE OF ELEPHANTS.

It is remarkable, that in every mode of capturing the wild elephant, man avails himself of the docility of individuals of the same species, which he has already subdued. Birds may be taught to assist in ensnaring other birds; but this is simply an effect of habit. The elephant, on the contrary, has an evident desire to join its master in subduing its own race; and in this treachery to its kind, exercises so much ingenuity, courage, and perseverance, that we cannot find a parallel instance of complete subjection to the will of him to whom it was given to "have dominion over the fish of the sea, and over the fowl of the air, and over every living thing that moveth upon the earth."

From some peculiar circumstances which have not been accurately explained, large male elephants are sometimes found apart from the herd. Sir Stamford Raffles says, speaking of the elephants that he met with in his journey through the southern Presidencies to Passumah, "The natives fancy that there are two kinds of elephants,—the *gaja berkampong*, those which always go in herds, and which are seldom mischievous, and the *gaja salunggal*, or single elephants, which are much larger and ferocious, going about either singly or only two or three in company. It is probable the latter kind are only the full-grown males." They probably, in many cases, separate themselves from their companions in search of fresh pastures. But as they are sometimes found in a state of considerable irritation, doing much mischief wherever they pass, it has been thought that these have been driven away by the stronger males, and that they are suffering all the agonies of unavailing jealousy. Being the finest elephants, and therefore the best adapted for sale, the hunters soon mark them for their own. They follow them cautiously by day and by night, with two, and sometimes four trained females, called *Koomkies*. If it be dark they can hear the animal striking his food, to clean it, against his fore-legs, and they then approach tolerably close;—if light, they advance more cautiously. The females gradually move towards him, apparently unconscious of his presence, grazing with great complacency, as if they were, like him, inhabitants of the wild forest. It is soon perceived by them whether he is likely to be entrapped by their arts. The drivers remain concealed at a little distance, while the *koomkies* press round the unhappy *goon-*

dah, or *saun*, (for so this sort of elephant is called). If he abandon himself to the caresses of his new companions, his capture is almost certain. The hunters cautiously creep under him, and during the intoxication of his pleasure, fasten his fore-legs with a strong rope. It is said that the wily females will not only divert his attention from their *mahouts*, but absolutely assist them in fastening the cords. Mr. Howitt made a spirited drawing of this curious scene, from the descriptions of Captain Williamson.

The hind legs of the captive being secured in a similar manner, the hunters leave him to himself, and retire to a short distance. In some cases he is fastened at once to a large tree, if the situation in which he is first entrapped allows this. But under other circumstances, in the first instance his legs are only tied together. When the females quit him he discovers his ignominious condition, and attempts to retreat to the covert of the forest. But he moves with difficulty, in consequence of the ropes which have been lashed round his limbs. There are long cables trailing behind him; and the *mahouts*, watching an opportunity, secure these to a tree of sufficient strength. He now becomes furious, throwing himself down, and thrusting his tusks into the earth. If he break the cables, and escape into the forest, the hunters dare not pursue him; but if he is adequately bound, he soon becomes exhausted with his own rage. He is then left to the further operation of hunger, till he is sufficiently subdued to be conducted, under the escort of his treacherous friends, to an appointed station, to which, after a few months' discipline, he becomes reconciled.

IMITATION FROM THE PERSIAN.

BY DR. SOUTHEY.

Lord! who art merciful as well as just,
Incline thine ear to me, a child of dust!
Not what I would, O Lord, I offer thee,
Alas, but what I can!
Father Almighty, who hast made me man,
And bade me look to Heaven, for thou art there,
Accept my sacrifice, and humble prayer.
Four things which are not in thy treasury
I lay before thee, Lord, with this petition. —
My nothingness, my wants,
My sins, and my contrition!

Anecdotes of Blind Persons.—A French lady, who lost her sight at two years old, was possessed of many talents which alleviated her misfortune. "In writing to her," it is said, "no ink is used, but the letters are pricked down on the paper; and, by the delicacy of her touch, feeling each letter, she follows them successively, and reads every word with her fingers' ends. She herself in writing makes use of a pencil, as she could not know when her pen was dry: her guide on the paper is a small thin ruler, and of the breadth of her writing. On finishing a letter, she wets it, so as to fix the traces of her pencil, that they are not obscured or effaced; then proceeds to fold and seal it, and write the direction, all by her own address, and without the assistance of any other person. Her writing is very straight, well cut, and the spelling no less correct. To reach this singular mechanism, the indefatigable cares of her affectionate mother were long employed, who, accustoming her daughter to feel letters cut in cards of paste-board, brought her to distinguish an A from a B, and thus the whole alphabet, and afterwards to spell words; then, by the remembrance of the shape of letters, to delineate them on paper; and lastly, to arrange them so as to form words and sentences. She sews and hems perfectly well, and in all her works she threads the needle for herself, however small."

We have a very remarkable instance in John Metcalf, of Manchester, who very lately followed the occupation of conducting strangers through intricate roads during the night, or when the tracts were covered with snow. And, strange as this may appear to those who can see, the employment of this man was afterwards that of a projector and surveyor of highways in difficult and mountainous parts! With the assistance only of a long staff, he has been several times seen traversing the roads, ascending precipices, exploring valleys, and investigating their several extents, forms, and situation, so as to answer his designs in the best manner. Most of the roads over the Peak in Derbyshire have been altered by his directions, particularly those in the vicinity of Buxton; and he has since constructed a new one between Wilmslow and Congleton, with a view to open a communication to the great London road, without being obliged to pass over the mountains.

Average Duration of Life.—Nothing is more proverbially uncertain than the duration of human life, where the maxim is applied to an individual; yet there are few things less subject to fluctuation than the average duration of a multitude of individuals. The number of deaths happening amongst persons of our own acquaintance is frequently very different in different years; and it is not an uncommon event that this number shall be double, treble, or even many times larger in one year than in the next succeeding. If we consider larger societies of individuals, as the inhabitants of a village or small town, the number of deaths is more uniform; and in still larger bodies, as among the inhabitants of a kingdom, the uniformity is such, that the excess of deaths in any year above the average number, seldom exceeds a small fractional part of the whole. In the two periods, each of fifteen years, beginning at 1780, the number of deaths occurring in England and Wales in any year did not fall short of, or exceed, the average number one-thirteenth part of the whole; nor did the number dying in any year differ from the number of those dying in the next by a tenth part.—*Babbage on the Assurance of Lives*

Advantages of the Diffusion of Knowledge.—An intelligent class can scarce ever be, as a class, vicious; never, as a class, indolent. The excited mental activity operates as a counterpoise to the stimulus of sense and appetite. The new world of ideas; the new views of the relations of things; the astonishing secrets of the physical properties and mechanical powers, disclosed to the well-informed mind, present attractions, which, unless the character is deeply sunk, are sufficient to counterbalance the taste for frivolous or corrupt pleasures; and thus, in the end, a standard of character is created in the community, which, though it does not invariably save each individual, protects the virtue of the mass.—*Everett's Discourse*.

Black Hawk. This celebrated chief, with his two sons, the prophet, and the other Indians named in the late treaty with the Sacs and Foxes at Fort Armstrong, arrived at Cincinnati on the 13th inst. on their way to Fortress Monroe in the Chesapeake Bay. Here they are to be confined during the pleasure of the President. It is understood, however, that they are to be treated in the most lenient manner, consistently with the security of their persons, and will be compelled to report themselves only once or twice a day.

American Gold.—It is estimated by the superintendent of the United States Mint, that one half of the gold found in this country, is coined at home; and that the amount of last year's production was a million and a quarter of dollars. This is estimated to be equal to one-sixth part of the entire quantity produced in Europe and America; and as the amount gathered by us, increases annually, the proportion will in all probability be for some years extending in our favor.

Death of Poniatowsky.—Died at Florence, 13th Feb. Prince Poniatowsky. He was born at Warsaw in 1754, and was the son of Casimir, brother of Stanislaus Augustus, the last King of the Poles. He was a liberal patron of the arts and literature, and retired to Florence, after having defended the interests of his country with manly eloquence, in the Diets of Poland. This Prince was the first who set the example of a useful and glorious reform by emancipating the serfs of his extensive domains.

Heraldry.—A sanguine Frenchman had so high an opinion of the pleasures to be enjoyed in the study of heraldry, that he used to lament, as we are informed by Menage, the hard case of our forefather Adam, who could not possibly amuse himself by investigating that science, nor that of genealogy.

VARIETIES.

It is stated in the Long Island Inquirer, that Mr. Wirt, the late Attorney General of the United States, has purchased a large tract of land in Florida, for the purpose of cultivating the sugar cane. Instead of employing slaves, as is usual for such labor, he has made an arrangement with several hundred German emigrants, who proceed to his estate under the charge of Lieutenant Goldsborough, his son-in-law.

The legislature of Lower Canada have adjourned, after a stormy and unusually prolonged session of one hundred and forty days. Great political excitement appears to exist in the Province, which is said to be approaching to a state of anarchy and confusion.

A battle has taken place between the troops of Don Pedro and Don Miguel, which terminated in the defeat of the latter; but it seems to have been a trifling affair, and no otherwise important than as showing that the prospects of Don Pedro are not so bad as they were represented by the last accounts.

It is stated that Count Survilliers (Joseph Bonaparte) is to sail from London 1st of May, on his return to the United States. One of his chief motives for the voyage to Europe is said to have been to visit his mother, in Italy, who is quite aged, and his wife, who is sick. But passports were denied him, and he is compelled to return, without enjoying this indulgence.

The number of petitions presented to the House of Commons in the five years ending 1831, was 24,492, of which 10,685 were ordered to be printed, at an expense of £12,000. The number presented in the five years ending 1789 was 890; in the five years ending 1805, 1,026, and in the five years ending 1815, 4,498.

A letter in the Boston Courier, dated Smyrna, 23d January, states that the Sheriff,—the regular Government messenger from Smyrna to Constantinople,—was murdered, with all his attendants, a few nights previous, about 15 miles from the former city, and robbed of \$40,000.

The brig Tigris arrived at Salem from Majunga, reports that there had been considerable political disturbances with much fighting; the Government had fallen into new hands, who were stated to be more pacific. The Cholera was very severe at Mocha, and along the Arabian coast.

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The pierced rock in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

THE RIVER ST. LAWRENCE.

The St. Lawrence, though not the longest river in the world, is certainly the largest in every other respect, if, as appears proper, its immense lakes be considered to form part of it. Under this aspect it will be found that the surface it covers, and the cubic mass of its waters, far exceed those of the Amazon or the Mississippi, but it probably does not carry to the ocean a greater volume of water than either of these two majestic streams. The source of the river St. Lewis, which may be deemed the remotest spring of the St. Lawrence, is in latitude $48^{\circ} 30'$ north, and longitude about 93° west. From its source the general direction of the St. Lawrence, through lakes Superior and Huron, is southeast to Lake Erie, nearly due east through that lake, and then northeast to the Gulf, through which its waters are mingled with the Atlantic Ocean, after an uninterrupted course of two thousand miles.

The Gulf of St. Lawrence, that receives the waters of this gigantic river, is formed between the western part of Newfoundland, the eastern shores of Labrador, the eastern extremity of the province of New Brunswick, part of the province of Nova Scotia, and the island of Cape Breton. It communicates with the Atlantic Ocean by three different passages, namely, on the north by the straits of Belleisle between Labrador and Newfoundland; on

the southeast by the passage between Cape Ray, at the southwest extremity of the latter island, and the north cape of Breton island; and lastly, by the narrow channel, named the Gut of Canso, that divides Cape Breton from Nova Scotia.

There are no soundings in the middle of the St. Lawrence until about one hundred and fifty miles up it. The snow on the banks in winter is about five feet deep. Sometimes the soil on the breasts of the hills will *shove* down with all its trees to the plains below. The spots where these shoves have taken place, are plainly seen from the river, and have a singular appearance. Numbers of shipwrecks occur yearly in the Gulf and River St. Lawrence; this proceeds from many causes. The pilots are none of the most skilful; the navigation is intricate and difficult. Then there are many ships sent out for timber, which are old, crazed, and unfit for any other trade. These are often laden beyond what they can bear; too much deck wood is heaped on them, so that the sailors cannot get to the ropes.

To be aboard a ship in the Gulf of St. Lawrence in an extremely stormy, dark night, when the weather is bitter cold, is perhaps as dismal a situation as human beings can be placed in. Sometimes a blaze of lightning between the squalls will illuminate for a moment the awful scene; then over the bulwarks comes the icy surge, cutting to the

bone; while the ropes snap, and the yards and jomasts come thundering upon the deck.

The St. Lawrence is navigable for ships of the line to Quebec, about 400 miles, and to Montreal for ships of 600 tons, 580 miles. The distance from Montreal to lake Ontario is 190 or 200 miles. The tide flows up as far as Three Rivers. Its breadth between Montreal and Quebec is from half a mile to four miles; the average breadth, about two miles. Below Quebec, it gradually widens, till it enters the gulf, where, from Cape Rosier to the Mingan settlement, on the Labrador coast, it is about 105 miles in breadth. From the beginning of December to the middle of April, the navigation is totally suspended by frost. The breaking up of the ice in spring is described as a magnificent scene. Among the islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence is a singular one called the pierced island, an engraving of which is presented above. It is a barren rock, near the base of which are two openings, large enough for a boat to pass through them.

A TURN FOR BUSINESS.

Next to a thorough grounding in good principles, perhaps the thing most essential to success in life is a habit of communicating easily with the world. By entering readily into conversation with others, we not only acquire information by being admitted to the stores which men of various modes of thinking have amassed, and thereby gain an insight into the peculiarities of human character, but those persons into whose society we may be accidentally thrown are gratified to think that they have been able to afford instruction. Seeing that we appreciate their favorite subject, they conceive a high opinion of our penetration, and not unfrequently exert themselves wonderfully to promote our interests. Men in business, particularly, who have this happy turn of being able to slide as it were into discourse, and to throw it into that train which is best suited to the capacities and humors of others, are wonderfully indebted to it for the run of customers it entices to their shops. A stately, grave, or solemn manner, is very inappropriate in measuring stuffs by the yard; and though a man be penetrated by the deepest sense of gratitude, if his bow be stiff, and his countenance not of a relaxing cast, he makes not half so favorable an impression as another who may not perhaps be a more deserving person in the main, but has a more graceful method of acknowledging his obligations. It is astonishing, too, at how cheap a rate good will is to be purchased. An insinuating way of testifying satisfaction with the pleasantness of the weather, is often a very effectual way of extending popularity; it is regarded as an act of condescension when addressed to some, while with others it is received as the indication of a happy temperament, which is at all times attractive. A person who "has little to say," or, in other words, who does not deign to open his mouth except when it is indispensably necessary, never proves generally acceptable. You will hear such a one described as "a very good sort of man in his way;" but people rather avoid him. He has neither the talent of conversing in an amusing vein himself, nor of leading on others to do so; and they are only the arrantest babblers who are contented with an inanimate listener. I remember a striking example of the various fortune of two persons in the same profession, who happened to be of those different dispositions.

Two pedlers made their rounds in the same district of country. The one was a tall, thin man, with a swarthy complexion. Nothing could exceed this fellow's anxiety to obtain customers; his whole powers seemed to be directed to the means of disposing of his wares. He no sooner arrived at a farm-house than he broached the subject nearest his heart—"Any thing wanted in my line to-day?" He entered into a most unqualified eulogium on their excellency; they were all unequalled in fineness; he could sell them for what might be said to be absolutely nothing; and as for lasting, why, to take his word for it, they would wear forever. He chose the table where the light was most advantageous, proceeded immediately to undo the labyrinth of cord with which his goods were secured, and took the utmost pains to exhibit their whole glories to the eyes of the admiring rustics. If the farmer endeavored to elicit from him some information concerning the state of the crops in the places where he had been travelling, he could only afford a brief and unsatisfactory answer, but was sure to tack to the tail of it the recommendation of some piece of west of England cloth which he held in his hand ready displayed. Nay, if the hospitality of the good wife made him an offer of refreshment before he entered upon business, he most magnanimously, but unpeddler-like, resisted the temptation to eat, animated by the still stronger desire to sell. There was no possibility of withdrawing him for a moment from his darling topic. To the master he said, "Won't you buy a coat?"—to the mistress, "Won't you buy a shawl?"—to the servant girls, "Won't you buy a gown a-piece?" and he earnestly urged the cowherd to purchase a pair of garters, regardless of the notorious fact that the ragged urchin wore no stockings. But all his efforts were ineffectual; even his gaudiest ribbons could not melt the money out of a single female heart; and his vinegar aspect grew yet more meagre as he restored each article untouched to his package.

The rival of this unsuccessful solicitor of custom was a short, squat man, fair-haired and ruddy. He came in with a hearty salutation, and set down his pack in some corner, where, as he expressed himself, it might be "out of the way." He then immediately abandoned himself to the full current of conversation, and gave a detail of every particular of news that was within his knowledge. He could tell the farmer every thing that he desired to know—what number of corn-stacks appeared in the barn-yards wherever he had been, and what quantity of grain still remained uncut or in shock, and he took time to enumerate the whole distinctly. He was equally well prepared in other departments of intelligence, and so fascinating was his gossip, that when the duties of any member of the family called them out of hearing, they were apt to linger so long, that the good wife declared he was "a perfect offput to a wark." This, however, was not meant to make him abate of his talkative humor; and neither did he: the whole budget was emptied first, and he received in turn the narratives of all and sundry. Then came the proposal from some of those whom he had gratified with his news, to "look what was in the pack." The goods were accordingly lugged from their place of concealment, and every one's hand was ready to pick out some necessary or some coveted piece of merchandise. The master discovered that, as he would be needing a suit ere long, it was as well to take it now. The mistress was just waiting for Thomas coming

round to supply herself with a variety of articles, "for," quoth she "many things are needit in a house." The servants exhorted each other to think whether they did not require something, for it was impossible to say when another opportunity of getting it might occur. The ell-wand was forthwith put into diligent requisition, the scissors snipped a little bit of the selvage, and an adroit "screed" separated the various cloths from the rapidly diminishing webs. The corners of many chests gave up their carefully hoarded gains, with which cheap remnants were triumphantly secured. In the midst of this transfer of finery, the poor herd boy looked on with a countenance so wofully expressive of the fact that he had not a farthing to spend, that some one took compassion on him, and, having laid out a trifling sum, had the satisfaction of making him perfectly happy with the equivalent, flinging it into his unexpected arms, and exclaiming, "Here, callant, there's something for you!" What a multiplicity of pleasing emotions had this trader the tact of calling into exercise, all of them redounding tenfold to his own proper advantage! It was impossible to say whether he cultivated his powers of talk from forethought, as knowing that they would produce a crisis favorable to his own interests, or if he indulged in them because gossiping was congenial to his own disposition. He had a sharp eye enough to what is called the main chance; but at the same time he did not possess that degree of intellectual depth, which we might expect to find in one who could calculate upon exciting the purchasing propensities by a method so indirect. Most probably, therefore, his success in business was more the result of an accidental cast of mind than of wisdom prepose, or any aptitude beyond common men for the arts of traffic, as considered by themselves.

Such, also, in most cases, is that talent which gets the name of "a fine turn for business." The possessor exerts his powers of pleasing, alike when engaged in the concerns of his profession, and in society when there is no object to serve but that of passing time agreeably. His engaging address is productive of commercial advantages, but it is not a thing acquired and brought into exercise solely for that end. Some people, no doubt, finding themselves to have a prepossessing manner, do employ it systematically to promote their views of business; but by far the greater number employ it because they have it, and without reference to the pecuniary profit that may accrue. The pecuniary profit, however, follows not the less as its consequence; and we have the satisfaction of seeing urbanity of manners almost uniformly rewarded by attaining to easy circumstances, while the man of a gruff unsocial humor has usually to maintain a hard struggle with fortune. The mere packing of knowledge into the heads of children is not the only thing required to insure their future respectability and happiness—the qualities of the heart also demand the fostering care of the instructor; and since so much depends on their temper and behavior to those around them, parents cannot be too assiduous in the cultivation of affability, the possession of which virtue is the grand secret that confers "a fine turn for business."—*Chambers' Edinburgh Journal*.

EPIGRAM, BY COLERIDGE.

Swans sing before they die—'t were no bad thing,
Did certain persons die before they sing.



THE PUMA.

The above engraving is a portrait of one of the most beautiful of the cat tribe in the Zoological Gardens in London. This creature appears perfectly mild and playful; sleeping, for the most part, in the day; but sometimes rising when interrupted by a stranger, and occasionally knocking about a little ball in its cage.

The puma is a native of the New World, and is principally found in Paraguay, Brazil, and Guiana. He is, however, often seen in the United States; but there, as in every other part of the world, civilisation daily lessens the range of those animals which live by the destruction of others. The puma, in its natural state, is a sanguinary creature, attacking the smaller quadrupeds, and often destroying more than can be necessary for the satisfaction of his appetite. He is alarmed at the approach of men or dogs, and flies to the woods, where he mounts trees with great ease. He belongs to the same division of cats as the lion, by the essential character of the unspotted color of his skin, which is of a reddish-yellow, or silvery-fawn; but, unlike the lion, he is without a mane, and the tail has no tuft. The average length of the puma is about four feet, and its height about two feet. It stands lower on the legs than the lion, and the head is round and small.

The puma, which was long called the American lion, though a large animal, is not an object of great dread to the natives of the regions to which he belongs. He is easily tamed. D'Azara, the naturalist, had one which was as sensible to caresses as the common cat; and Mr. Kean, the tragedian, had a domesticated puma, which was much attached to him. Although there have been instances of the puma attacking, and even destroying the human species, in South America they have an instinctive dread of any encounter of this nature. Capt. Head, in his "Journey across the Pampas," has the following interesting anecdote of the puma, which, in common with other travellers, he incorrectly calls the lion:

"The fear which all wild animals in America have of man is very singularly seen in the Pampas. I often rode towards the ostriches and zamas, crouching under the opposite side of my horse's neck; but I always found that, although they would allow any loose horse to approach them, they, even when young, ran from me, though little of my figure was visible; and when one saw them all enjoying themselves in such full liberty, it was at first not pleasing to observe that one's appearance was every where a signal to them that they should fly

from their enemy. Yet it is by this fear that "man hath dominion over the beasts of the field," and there is no animal in South America that does not acknowledge this instinctive feeling. As a singular proof of the above, and of the difference between the wild beasts of America and of the Old World, I will venture to relate a circumstance which a man sincerely assured me had happened to him in South America.

"He was trying to shoot some wild ducks, and, in order to approach them unperceived, he put the corner of his poncho (which is a sort of long, narrow blanket) over his head, and crawling along the ground upon his hands and knees, the poncho not only covered his body, but trailed along the ground behind him. As he was thus creeping by a large bush of reeds, he heard a loud, sudden noise, between a bark and a roar: he felt something heavy strike his feet, and instantly jumping up, he saw, to his astonishment, a large lion actually standing on his poncho; and, perhaps, the animal was equally astonished to find himself in the immediate pre-



sence of so athletic a man. The man told me he was unwilling to fire, as his gun was loaded with very small shot; and he therefore remained motionless, the lion standing on his poncho for many seconds: at last the creature turned his head, and walking very slowly away about ten yards, he stopped and turned again: the man still maintained his ground, upon which the lion tacitly acknowledged his supremacy, and walked off."

STEEL PLATES FOR ENGRAVING.

For several years past sheet steel has been used in large quantities, instead of copperplates, by the engravers. By this fortunate application of so durable, and, it may be added, so economical a material, not only has a new field been discovered admirably suited to yield in perfection the richest and finest graphic productions, which the ingenuity of modern art can accomplish, but to do so through an amazingly numerous series of impressions without perceptible deterioration. The art of engraving on iron or steel for purposes of ornament, and even for printing, in certain cases, is by no means a discovery of modern times; but the substitution of the latter material for copper, which has invited the superiority of the British burine to achievements hitherto unattempted by our artists, is entirely a modern practice.

In the year 1810, Mr. Dyer, an American merchant, residing in London, obtained a patent for certain improvements in the construction and method of using plates and presses, &c., the principles of which were communicated to him by a foreigner residing abroad. This foreigner was Mr. Jacob Perkins, an ingenious artist of New England, and whose name subsequently became so extensively known in this country, in connexion with roller-press printing from hardened steel plates. The

plates used by Mr. Perkins were, on the average, about five eighths of an inch thick; they were either of steel, so tempered as to admit of the operation of the engraver, or, as was more generally the case, of steel decarbonated, so as to become very pure soft iron, in which case, after they had received the work on the surface, they were casehardened by cementation.

The decarbonating process was performed by enclosing the plate of cast steel, properly shaped, in a cast iron box, or case, filled about the plate to the thickness of about an inch, with oxide of iron or rusty iron filings. In this state the box is luted close, and placed on a regular fire, where it is kept at a red heat during from three to twelve days. Generally about nine days is sufficient to decarbonize a plate five eighths of an inch in thickness. When the engraving or etching has been executed, the plate is superficially converted into steel by placing it in a box as before, and surrounding it on all sides by a powder made of equal parts of burned bones, and the cinders of burned animal matter, such as old shoes or leather. In this state the box, with its contents, closely luted, must be exposed to a blood red heat for three hours; after which it is taken out of the fire, and plunged perpendicularly edgewise into cold water, which has been previously boiled, to throw off the air. By this means the plate becomes hardened, without the danger of warping or cracking. It is then tempered, or let down, by brightening the under surface of the plate with a bit of stone; after which it is heated by being placed upon a piece of hot iron, or melted lead, until the rubbed portions acquire a pale straw color. For this purpose, however, the patentee expressed himself in favor of a bath of oil heated to the temperature of 460 degrees, or thereabouts, of Fahrenheit's scale. The plate being cooled in water, and polished on the surface, was ready for use.

A more material peculiarity in Mr. Perkins's invention, and one which does not seem to have been approached by any preceding artist, was the contrivance of what are called *indenting cylinders*. These are rollers of two or three inches in diameter, and made of steel, decarbonized by the process before described, so as to be very soft. In this state they are made to roll backward and forward under a powerful pressure, over the surface of one of the hardened plates, until all the figures, letters, or indentations are communicated with exquisite precision, in sharp relief upon the cylinder, which being carefully hardened and tempered becomes, by this means, fitted to communicate an impression to other plates, by an operation similar to that by which it was originally figured. It will be obvious, that one advantage gained by this method must be the entire saving of the labor and expense of recutting, in every case on different plates, ornaments, borders, emblematical designs, &c., as these can now be impressed with little trouble on any number of plates, or in any part thereof, by the application of the cylinder. At first sight, the performance of such an operation as the one now alluded to, may appear difficult, if not impracticable and, indeed, many persons, on its first announcement, were disposed to doubt or deny its possibility altogether. With a proper and powerful apparatus, however, this method of transferring engravings from plates to cylinders, and *vice versa*, is every day performed with facility and success, not only in the production of Irish bank-notes, labels, &c., but in works exhibiting very elaborate engravings.—*Lardner's Cyclopaedia*.



Bridge across the river Silwund in Persia

EXTRACT FROM BUCKINGHAM'S TRAVELS.

The town of Khan-e-Keen consists of two portions, occupying the respective banks of the river Silwund, which are connected together by a bridge across the stream. The river here flows nearly from south to north through the town; about half a mile to the southward of the bridge the bend of the river is seen, where the stream comes from the eastward; it then goes north for about a mile, and afterwards turns westerly, bending gradually to the southward; so as to form the Giaour-Soo, which runs to the west of Kesrabad.

The river is here, however, called the Sirwund or Silwund, and has its source in the eastern mountains, though no one at the place pretends to know, the exact distance of it from hence. The bridge is newly built of brick-work, and is supported on thirteen pointed arches and buttresses all of good masonry. It is high, broad, and well paved across, and is a hundred and eighty horse paces long, though the river itself is not, on an average, more than half that breadth.

Advantage has been taken of a bed of solid rock, which lies in the centre of the stream, to make it the foundation of the bridge; and the water of the river is led under each of the arches, through a narrow and deep channel, originally cut no doubt in the rock, but since worn into deep and apparently natural beds, leaving each side of the rock dry. In this way each arch has under it two broad level spaces of stone with a deep and rapid current going between them; so, that at this season of the year, when the water is low, a person can walk dry shod, across the rock, by the side of the bridge, and the places beneath the arches form so many shady retreats, where parties assemble to enjoy refreshments by the water, which is particularly clear, from running in a gravelly bed, and is of pure and excellent taste.

The western portion of Khan-e-Keen, which is the largest, approaches close to a cliff, overlooking the stream, and is banked up in some places by a brick wall. The eastern division is smaller, but contains an excellent khan built in the Persian style, and capable of receiving a large caravan. Both divisions together contain about fifteen hundred dwell-

lings, and a population of twelve thousand inhabitants. There are two principal mosques in the place, and the people are all of the sect of the Soonnees. Among the inhabitants are a few Jews, but no Christians. The governor is subject to Bagdad, and pays a tribute to the Pasha, which is drawn from agriculture, and the profits made on supplies to casual passengers. The language spoken is chiefly Turkish.

There are many excellent gardens at Khan-e-Keen, and no want of trees; while the banks of the river, which are low both above and below the town, though one of them is high as the town itself, are covered with verdure. Tradition says that in this place was formerly a fine park, and two palaces, the work of Ferhad, the celebrated architect and sculptor, and lover of Shirine; one of these palaces, named Berzmahan, being for Shirine herself and the other the place from whence Khosrau or Kesra, her lord used to survey his troops. No situation can be more agreeable for parks or palaces, but no remains of any great buildings were now to be traced.

LONGEVITY.

It is stated in the Warsaw Gazette, that a shepherd named Demetrius Grabowsky, died a short time since at Potorski, on the frontiers of Lithuania, at the great age of 169 years. Jenkins, the oldest man on record in England, lived exactly as long as the Polish shepherd. Old Parr reached 152 years. It is said that Grabowsky has left a son who is now 120 years old. A female died lately in Poland aged 124. Joseph Ram, a negro, affords the most extraordinary recent instance of longevity, next to Grabowsky; he died at the age of 146.

Sir John Sinclair, in his 'Code of Health and Longevity,' has stated that all of a great number of very old persons, whom he questioned, *were alike only in two particulars*—they were descended from parents of good constitutions, and—*they were early risers*. Another fact may be stated, to which there are few exceptions: nearly all the well-affirmed instances of longevity have been among persons, who have lived and died poor.



THE CLOVE.

The Clove is a native of most of the Molucca islands, where it has been produced, from the earliest records, so abundantly, that in exchange for their spicy produce, the inhabitants were enabled, before the intrusion of the Europeans into their country, to procure for themselves the productions which they required of almost every other region. Although Europeans have for more than two thousand years known the use of this spice, yet little more than three hundred years back they were ignorant whence it was obtained. The Persians, Arabians, and Egyptians formerly brought cloves and nutmegs to the ports in the Mediterranean, and hither the Venetians and Genoese resorted to buy the spices of India, until the Portuguese, in 1511, discovered the country of their production. This nation did not, however, long enjoy the fruits of its discovery; the Dutch soon drove them from the Moluccas, and for a long time retained a very strict monopoly over the productions of these islands. It is said that they destroyed the clove trees growing on the other islands, and confined their culture wholly to Amboyna. They allotted to the inhabitants four thousand parcels of land, on each of which it was expected that one hundred and twenty-five trees should be cultivated; and in 1720 a law was passed compelling the natives to make up this number; there were in consequence five hundred thousand clove-trees planted in this small island; each of these on an average produced annually more than two pounds of cloves, so that the aggregate produce weighed more than a million of pounds.

Subsequently to this period, the policy of the Dutch somewhat relaxed, and the tree has been suffered to grow on other islands, and even to be carried to the West Indies; where, however, it does not appear until very lately to have succeeded. Sir Joseph Banks introduced it into England about 1797, but of course it is raised there only as a mere ornament or curiosity of the greenhouse.

The clove is a handsome tree, somewhat like the bay tree in some of its characters, though the leaves

more nearly resemble those of the laurel. The flowers of the clove grow in bunches at the very extremity of the branches; when they first appear, which is at the beginning of the rainy season, they are in the form of elongated greenish buds, from the extremity of which the corolla is expanded, which is of a delicate peach-blossom color. When the corolla begins to fade, the calyx turns yellow, and then red: the calyces, with the embryo seed, are in this stage of their growth beaten from the tree, and after being dried in the sun, are what are known as the cloves of commerce. If the fruit be allowed to remain on the tree after arriving at this period, the calyx gradually swells, the seed enlarges, and the pungent properties of the clove are in great part dissipated. Each berry contains only one seed, which is oval, dark colored, and of a considerable size. It is a long time before a clove-tree yields any profit to the cultivator; it rarely producing fruit till eight or nine years after being first planted.

The whole tree is highly aromatic, and the footstalks of the leaves have nearly the same pungency as the calyx of the flowers. "Clove-trees," says Sir T. Raffles, "as an avenue to a residence are perhaps unrivalled—their noble height, the beauty of their form, the luxuriance of their foliage, and above all, the spicy fragrance with which they perfume the air, produce, on driving through a long line of them, a degree of exquisite pleasure only to be enjoyed in the clear light atmosphere of these latitudes."

Cloves contain a very large proportion of essential oil, larger perhaps than any other plant or parts of a plant. This oil is extremely pungent, and is one of the few essential oils which is specifically heavier than water. It is usually procured by distillation, but when the cloves are newly gathered it may be obtained by pressure. A part is often so taken, and the cloves, which are thereby rendered of little value, are fraudulently mixed with sound ones; but the robbed cloves are easily detected by their pale color, shrivelled appearance, and want of flavor.

The pungent and aromatic virtues of the clove reside in this essential oil, combined with the resinous matter of the spice; but it does not appear that these qualities are absolutely necessary to the growth or fructification of the tree. To give to this its greatest value, it must, however, be cultivated in a situation where they can be elaborated in the greatest quantity. Its profitable growth is therefore limited to a very narrow range of temperature and climate; as the clove loses its flavor if the situation be too moist or too dry, too near the sea, or too much elevated above its level. Though the tree be found in the larger islands of Eastern Asia and in Cochin China, it has there little or no flavor. The Moluccas seem to be the only places where the clove comes to perfection without cultivation.

This tree is so great an absorbent of moisture that no herbage will grow under its branches; while the cloves, when gathered, if placed in a heap near a vessel of water, are found very much to have increased their weight at the end of only a few hours, in consequence of the large portion of water which they have attracted and imbibed. It is said that both the grower and trader in cloves avail themselves of the knowledge of this fact, and since this spice is always sold by weight, thus give a factitious value to their goods.

SUGAR.

Sugar may be properly reckoned a necessary of life. It is of almost universal use throughout the world. The scattered tribes of North American Indians spend the months of spring in their rude encampments, manufacturing sugar out of the juice of the maple;—the five-and-twenty million inhabitants of Great Britain employ, throughout the year, two hundred thousand tons of shipping to export five hundred million pounds of sugar from their colonies. Through the natural operation of our commercial power this important article of comfort is placed within the reach of the humblest in the land.



The Sugar-cane must be considered as a native of China, since it has been pretty accurately shown that its cultivation was prosecuted in that empire for two thousand years before sugar was even known in Europe, and for a very long period before other eastern nations became acquainted with its use. For some time after this substance, in its crystalline form, had found its way to the westward, through India and Arabia, a singular degree of ignorance prevailed in regard to its nature, and the mode of its production; and there is reason for believing that the Chinese, who have always evinced an unconquerable repugnance to foreign intercourse, purposely threw a veil of mystery over the subject. Persons have not been wanting, even in modern times, who have approved of this anti-social spirit, as being the perfection of political wisdom;—but is it not a complete answer to their opinion, that every nation which has cultivated commercial relations has been steadily advancing in civilisation, and adding most importantly to the sum of its comforts and conveniences? while the inhabitants of China, although possessed of the greatest natural advantages, arising from variety of soil and climate, by which advantages they had so long ago placed themselves in advance of other people, have remained altogether stationary?

A knowledge of the origin of cane sugar was correctly revealed in the middle of the thirteenth century, by the celebrated traveller Marco Polo;

though it was partially known much earlier. The plant was soon conveyed to Arabia, Nubia, Egypt, and Ethiopia, where it became extensively cultivated. Early in the fifteenth century the sugar-cane first appeared in Europe. Sicily took the lead in its cultivation; thence it passed to Spain, Madeira, and the Canary Islands; and shortly after the discovery of the New World by Columbus, this plant was conveyed to Hayti and Brazil, from which latter country it gradually spread through the islands of the West Indies.

The sugar-cane varies exceedingly in its growth, depending upon the nature of the soil. In new and moist land it sometimes attains the height of twenty feet. It is always propagated from cuttings. The hoeing of a cane-field is a most laborious operation when performed, as it must be, under the rays of a tropical sun. Formerly this task was always effected by hand labor, but, of late years, where the nature of the ground will admit of the employment of a plough, that instrument has been substituted, to the mutual advantage of the planter and his laborers. The planting of canes does not require to be renewed annually; in such a case the utmost number of laborers now employed on a sugar plantation would be wholly inadequate to its performance.

When the canes are fully ripe they are cut close to the ground, and being then divided into convenient lengths, are tied up in bundles, and conveyed to the mill. The canes, on being passed twice between the cylinders of this mill, have all their juice expressed. This is collected in a cistern, and must be immediately placed under process by heat to prevent its becoming acid. A certain quantity of lime in powder, or of lime-water, is added at this time to promote the separation of the grosser matters contained in the juice; and these being as far as possible removed at a heat just sufficient to cause the impurities to collect together on the surface, the cane liquor is then subjected to a very rapid boiling, in order to evaporate the watery particles, and bring the syrup to such a consistency that it will granulate on cooling. Upon an average, every five gallons, imperial measure, of cane-juice, will yield six pounds of crystallized sugar, and will be obtained from about one hundred and ten well-grown canes.

When the sugar is sufficiently cooled in shallow trays, it is put into the hogsheads in which it is shipped. These casks have their bottoms pierced with holes, and are placed upright over a large cistern into which the molasses—which is the portion of saccharine matter that will not crystallize—drains away, leaving the raw sugar in the state wherein we see it in our grocers' shops: the casks are then filled up, headed down, and shipped.

The molasses which has drained from the sugar, together with all the scummings of the coppers, are collected, and, being first fermented, are distilled for the production of rum.

A Curious River.—In the province of Andalusia, in Spain, there is a river called the *Tinto*, from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as Topaz. It possesses the most extraordinary and singular qualities. If a stone happen to fall in and rest upon another, they both become, in one year's time, perfectly united and conglutinated. All the plants on its banks are withered by its waters whenever they overflow. No kind of verdure will come up where its water reaches, nor can any fish live in its stream. This river rises in the Sierra Morena mountains, and its singular properties continue until other rivers run into it and alter its nature.

ANECDOTE OF THE STAGE.

Mr. John Palmer, well known as an actor, on the London boards, terminated his dramatic career and his life on the Liverpool stage, in 1798. On the morning of the day on which he was to have performed the "Stranger," he received the distressing intelligence of the death of his second son, a youth in whom his dearest hopes were centred, and whose amiable manners had brought into action the tenderest affections of a parent. The play, in consequence of this, was deferred; and during the interval, he had in vain endeavored to calm the agitation of his mind. The success with which he performed the part, called for a second representation (August 2d 1798), in which he fell a sacrifice to the poignancy of his own feelings, and in which the audience were doomed to witness a catastrophe which was truly melancholy. In the fourth act, Baron Steinfort obtains an interview with the Stranger, whom he discovers to be his old friend. He prevails on him to relate the cause of his seclusion from the world: in this relation, the feelings of Mr. Palmer were visibly much agitated; and at the moment he mentioned his wife and children, having uttered (as in the character) "O God! O God! there is another and a better world!" he fell lifeless on the stage. The audience supposed for a moment that his fall was nothing more than a studied addition to the part; but seeing him carried off in deadly stiffness, the utmost astonishment and terror became depicted in every countenance. The lifeless corpse was conveyed from the stage into the scene room. Medical assistance was immediately procured; his veins were opened, but they yielded not a single drop of blood; and every other means of resuscitation were had recourse to, without effect. The gentlemen of the faculty, finding every endeavor ineffectual, formally announced his death.

Deafness of the Aged.—Nothing is more common than to hear old people utter querulous complaints with regard to their increasing deafness; but those who do so are not perhaps aware that this infirmity is the result of an express and wise arrangement of Providence in constructing the human body. The gradual loss of hearing is effected for the best of purposes; it being to give ease and quietude to the decline of life, when any noises or sounds from without would but discompose the enfeebled mind, and prevent peaceful meditation. Indeed, the gradual withdrawal of all the senses, and the perceptible decay of the frame, in old age, have been wisely ordained in order to wean the human mind from the concerns and pleasures of the world, and to induce a longing for a more perfect state of existence.

Cypress of Montezuma.—In the gardens of Chapultepec, near Mexico, the first object that strikes the eye is the magnificent Cypress called the Cypress of Montezuma. It had attained its full growth, when the monarch was on the throne, (1520) so that it must now be at least 400 years old; yet it still retains all the vigor of youthful vegetation. The trunk is forty-one feet in circumference, yet the height is so majestic as to make even this enormous mass appear slender. At Santa Maria de Tula, in Oaxaca, is a Cypress 93½ English feet in circumference which yet does not show the slightest symptom of decay.

Rise of Lake Erie.—For the last several years, the rise of the water in the Lake has made serious encroachments on its southern shore in many places. For a considerable distance above the mouth of Black River, the bank of the lake is low and without rock. Twelve years ago, the bank was generally sloping, with a wide beach. Now the waves beat against a perpendicular bank, which from continual abrasion, is continually falling off. From one to three rods in width are worn away annually. The phenomena of this rise of waters, remain unexplained.—*Ohio Atlas.*

The Ettrick Shepherd.—We had the pleasure to receive a few days since a long letter from James Hogg, the Ettrick Shepherd, in relation to the publication of some of his works in the United States. He is about writing a series of tales in ten or twelve volumes. We regret to learn from his own pen, that, though "a poor shepherd half a century ago," he is, notwithstanding a life of industry, "a poor shepherd to this day." He writes that he has heard of "the splendid city of Albany on the Hudson," "at his own cottage in Yarrow," and that his poems have been extensively read in the United States.—*Albany Daily Advertiser.*

Inexhaustibility of Literature.—Books are the cause of books. Were there no books in the world, it might be difficult to write one; but because there are so many, there may be so many more. The facility of production increases with production; the rays of intellectual light, are by the prismatic operation of books, broken into an infinity of lines and colors. Men may as soon cease to talk as cease to read and write books. All our daily and hourly talk may be made matter of literature, ay, and of interesting literature too. The more books that are printed, the more food is given to the mind; and the more nourishment the mind receives, the more vigorous its powers; and the greater its strength, the more valuable its thoughts, and the more excited its powers and capacities. There is no one topic in the whole range of literary interest that can be conceived capable of exhaustion; and in matters of imagination there is no intellectual foresight, however sagacious, that is capable of conjecturing what may be done.—*London Atlas.*

VARIETIES.

An address to the people of the United States has been made by a committee, appointed by the citizens of Cumberland, in Maryland. This town, it will be recollected, was visited by a destructive fire on Sunday, the 14th of April last. The value of the property destroyed has been estimated at more than \$272,000, and 700 people have been rendered houseless, and otherwise deplorably destitute. It is hoped that an appeal of this kind to the charitable sympathies of our countrymen will be answered by their characteristic generosity and practical good feeling.

The first specimen of an Anglo Chinese Calendar and Register has been published in China for the year 1832. According to this authority, the population returns of the celestial empire, in 1813, amounted to 362 millions; of which number the capital, Peking, alone is said to contain five millions.

A splendid fair, for the benefit of the New England Institution for the Blind, was recently held at Faneuil Hall, in Boston. It commenced on the first of May, and continued three days, during which the old "cradle of liberty" was transformed into a scene of oriental splendor. The amount of the receipts exceeded \$12,000. The liberal donation of Mr. T. H. Perkins of his house in Pearl street, valued at \$30,000, will probably complete the success of this laudable Institution. Other donations have been made, which reflect high credit on the donors.

The Russian American Company, with the view of opening a commercial communication with the North of America, intend founding a colony upon Stuart's Island in Norton Bay, and a convenient road is to be made from Siberia to the coast of Ochotzk.

The last accounts from Havana state, that the cholera has subsided. From 12,000, to 15,000 are supposed to have perished in that city since the commencement of the disease. Some of the plantations had suffered severely in the loss of slaves.

There are very contradictory accounts in circulation respecting the disposition and movements of the Indians on the frontier. The St. Louis Republican of the 9th ult, states on the authority of letters from Galena and Peoria, that they are assembling in large numbers on Rock River, evidently with hostile intentions, and that great alarm prevails in the vicinity of Galena. The same paper of the 12th says, that there is no reason for believing that these reports have any foundation in truth.

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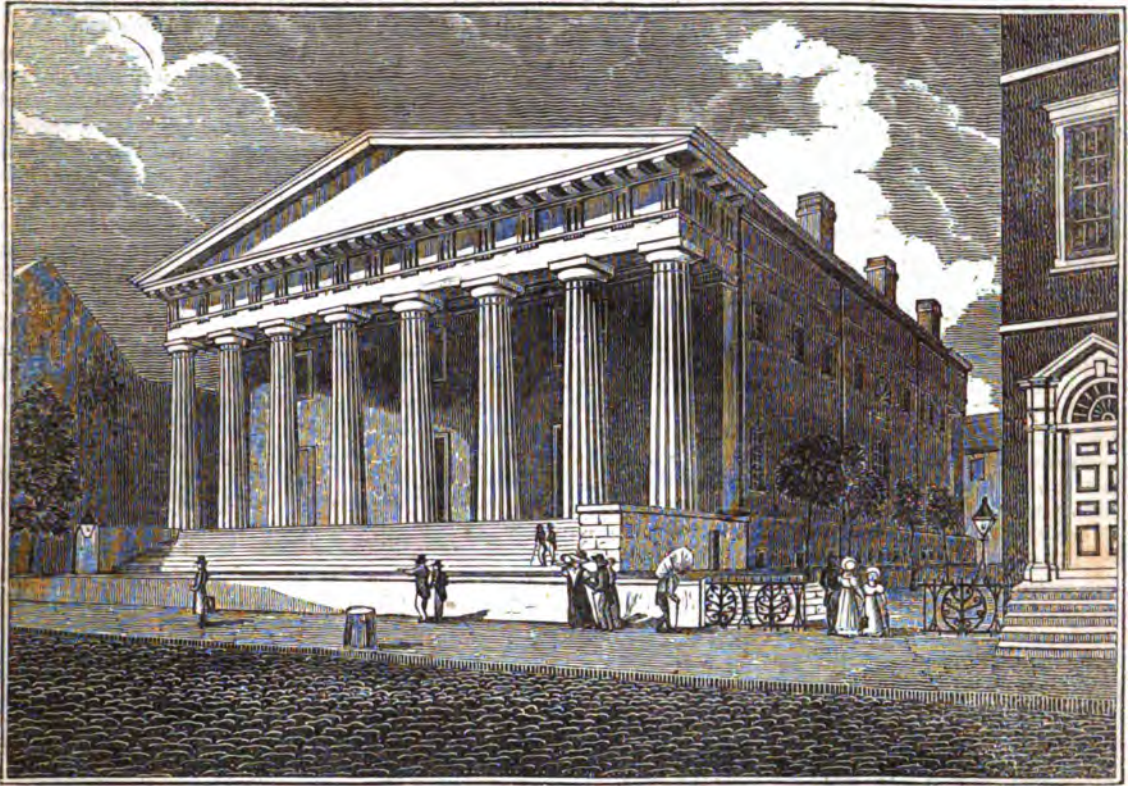
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VOL. I.



THE BANK OF THE UNITED STATES, AT PHILADELPHIA.

The bank of the United States was established by act of congress, on the 10th day of April 1816, and chartered until the 3d day of March 1836. The bonus to the government was 1,500,000 dollars.

Its capital is 35,000,000 dollars, divided into 350,000 shares of 100 dollars each: of these the government subscribed 70,000 shares, and is therefore one-fifth proprietor of the bank.

The capital is divided between the parent bank at Philadelphia, and the different offices of discount and deposit, or branches, established in various parts of the union. The general administration of the bank is entrusted to a board of twenty-five directors, of whom five are annually appointed by the president and senate of the United States, and twenty are annually elected by the stockholders. The branches are managed by a board of directors, annually chosen by the parent bank, and consisting of from seven to thirteen members.

The Banking-House is formed on the plan of the Parthenon at Athens, so far as it could be, consistently with the different purposes for which it is designed, and dispensing of course with the flanking columns, and every appendage of mere decoration.

The ascent to the porticos is by a flight of six steps to a terrace extending in front of the building, and sixteen feet on each flank.

On this platform, being eighty-seven feet in front, and one hundred and sixty-one feet in depth, including the porticos, the building is erected. In front,

steps of marble lead to the basement, projecting ten feet six inches in front of the building, and upon which rise eight Doric columns, four feet six inches in diameter, and twenty-seven feet in height, supporting a plain entablature, and a pediment, the vertical angle of which is 153° .

The door of entrance opens into a large vestibule with circular ends, embracing the transfer and loan offices on the right and left, together with a commodious lobby leading to the banking-room. The vestibule ceiling is a prolonged panelled dome, divided into three compartments by bands enriched with the guilloches springing from a projecting impost containing a sunken frette. The pavement is tessellated with American and Italian marble throughout.

The banking-room occupies the centre of the building, being forty-eight feet wide, having its length, eighty-one feet, in an east and west direction, and lighted exclusively from these aspects. Its leading features present a double range of six fluted marble columns, twenty-two inches in diameter, at a distance of ten feet each from the side walls, forming a screen or gallery for the clerks' desks, which are placed within the spaces between the columns. These columns are of the Greek Ionic order, with a full entablature and blocking course, on which the great central and lateral arches are supported: the central arch, being semi-cylindrical, is twenty-eight feet in diameter, eighty-one feet in length, and subdivided into seven compartments,

with projecting concentric platbands over and of equal diameter with each column, the intervals being enriched with square sunken moulded panels: this ceiling is thirty-five feet from the floor to the crown of the arch, and is executed with great precision and effect. An Isthmian wreath, carved in one entire block of Pennsylvania white marble, surrounds the clock face, which occupies the space of the first panel over the entablature in the centre, the design of which is copied from the reverse of an antique gem found at Corinth, and described by Stuart in his work on the Antiquities of Athens. The tellers' counters are composed of marble, forming panelled pedestals across each end of the banking-room, commencing at the first column from each of the end walls.

The stockholders' room is a parallelogram of twenty-eight feet by fifty, being lighted from the portico of the south front, having a groin arched ceiling, with projecting platbands, enriched with guilloches springing near the base of the groin angle, across the semi-circular intrados of the arch. Each end of the room is ornamented with niches eight feet wide, the heads of which form an architrave concentric with the semi-circular panels in the tympanum of the shortest diameter. The committee rooms from the stockholders' open right and left, flanked by two flights of marble stairs, leading to the clock chamber and other apartments in the second story. The private stairway from the banking-room leads to the directors', engravers', and copperplate printers' rooms, being lighted from the roof. All the internal door-jams, sills, and imposts, are of marble.

The banking-room is amply warmed by two cast iron furnaces, lined with fire brick, being simply erected within an air chamber, through which the external atmosphere passes, and becomes heated by the furnace: it then rises through the arch into a circular cast-iron pedestal, perforated on the sides, out of which it is suffered to escape into the room.

The whole body of the building is arched in a bomb-proof manner from the cellar to the roof, which is covered with copper. All the groin arches are girdled at the springing line with iron straps, passing round within the body of the division walls.

The foundation stone was laid on the 19th day of April 1819; and the whole building was completed in August 1824.

JOURNAL OF A TOUR FROM THE PACIFIC TO THE ATLANTIC OCEAN, THROUGH THE INTERIOR OF MEXICO, IN 1827,* BY WM. R. BOWERS OF PROVIDENCE.

The town of San Blas is situated in latitude $21^{\circ} 30'$ North, longitude $104^{\circ} 50'$ West from Greenwich. It is built on a high rock one mile and a half from the sea; and is surrounded on all sides by marshes overgrown with trees and underwood, and which in the rainy season are quite overflowed. These marshes produce insects and reptiles of every description, besides all kinds of game, ducks of every species, snipe, pigeons, curlew, wild turkeys, deer &c. affording good amusement to those fond of sport.

The town contains two hundred and fifty houses: few however can be called tenable. A good custom-house, the Commandant's-house and a miserable hospital, with a church in ruins, are the only

* The original sketches here presented to our readers will be found to contain much novel information with respect to a tract of country but little known.

public buildings. The number of inhabitants at this season (February) may be estimated at about 3500 or 4000. In the rainy season, San Blas is quite depopulated on account of sickness; no vessels coming there, particularly in the months of June, July and August, as heavy gales and bad weather render it dangerous to shipping. At this place there is a river capable of containing twenty sail: vessels drawing ten feet can enter it in cases of emergency. But it would be an impossibility to keep their crews on board on account of mosquitoes and sand-flies. At this place there is an arsenal or dockyard established, but the labor of repairing a vessel is so enormously high, that strangers seldom attempt it. The usual place of anchorage is abreast of the entrance of the river, in seven fathoms of water, and is distant one mile and a half from the shore. It is defended by two batteries of fifteen or twenty guns, in most shocking repair and poorly manned.

Vessels coming to San Blas should be provided with good ground tackling, and not want for stores of any description. Particular attention should be paid to the vessel's copper, as the worms here are more destructive than in any other part of the world. Navigators should not place any confidence in English charts issued before the year 1826, as all this part of the coast and the Gulf of California, are laid down very erroneously. San Blas is a receiving place for the interior towns of Mexico, and carries on a considerable trade with upper and lower California. The manners of the people are the same as the Spanish, which, being so well known, need no description.

Having provided myself with a guide, two horses, two mules for baggage, and with every thing proper for the journey, my trunks and bedding being well secured against the dust and rain, and myself being well armed, on the 28th of February 1827, I commenced my journey from San Blas to the city of Mexico. Our road this day lay over a low, muddy tract of land overgrown with a great variety of trees. I frequently had my hat, and was sometimes in danger of having my head, knocked off by the boughs of trees, which were taking their loving embraces across the road. Our horses often sunk to the saddle girths in mire. I noticed game of different descriptions, also a small deserted village called the Port, where the Indians at particular times resort for the purpose of manufacturing salt. Although it is twenty miles in the interior, yet at particular seasons the water of the Pacific overflows the land as far as this place. When the waters retire they leave a considerable layer of salt earth, which is collected by the natives, who by pouring water over it, prepare from the earth a strong brine, which they dispose in large, shallow pans made in the ground, for two or three months, when the sun turns it into salt. I observed the natives making lime from the large beds of shells, which nature had deposited here some centuries since, and which lay but one or two feet below the surface of the ground. At 8. P. M. we arrived at the Rancho of Silvas, so called from the owner. It is a small collection of huts with thatched roofs and sides formed by stakes driven into the ground, just near enough together to keep out the wild beasts, and situated in the middle of a forest. At this place, we succeeded in getting a supper for ourselves and provender for our horses. After paying for our poor fare very enormously, we retired, having travelled this day about thirty-three miles

Considering the situation of our quarters I passed a comfortable night. At 4. A. M. we resumed our journey over a bad road scarcely passable in some places for our horses. I suffered the inconvenience of frequently having to stop for my hat, as the boughs of the trees were so thick as to make it rather unsafe to ride before daylight. I noticed fields of sugar-cane, and corn, and several small settlements of huts. We also passed over some fine runs of water. At 8. A. M. we arrived at the entrance of a romantic and dreary forest called the Parlos Marias, situated in a low, deep ravine, two or three miles in extent, and noted for the many robberies and murders which have there been committed. On entering this place, your guide takes care to warn you to reprime your pistols and have every thing ready at the shortest notice. Although the day should be fine, you lose sight of the sun from the time you enter till you come out. I noticed the beech, birch, live and white oak, and a number of trees, whose names were unknown to me. We often ascended very steep hills, and the path, for the greater part of the way, was intercepted with large loose stones and gullies washed by the rains, which caused our journey to be rather fatiguing. On our road this day, we passed over a tract, several miles in length of entire pumice stone. We stopped to dine with an Indian, of whom Capt. Basil Hall speaks in his book of travels, and found him a very shrewd fellow. At noon, we arrived at the town of Tepick having travelled this day thirty miles. The distance of this place from San Blas is sixty-three miles.

Tepick is situated in a beautiful plain surrounded on all sides by high hills. It contains about 500 private houses, and has several fine public buildings, with a population of 9000. In the rainy season, the population is increased by 3 or 4000 emigrants from San Blas and Mazatlan, who resort here for the purpose of spending that portion of the year. The town is handsomely laid out in squares, and the streets are well paved, yet little attention seems to be paid to having them kept clean. From the number of buildings now being erected, I believe it is growing rapidly. This, like all other Mexican towns, has a garrison of good looking soldiers. There appeared considerable life among the inhabitants: balls, theatrical exhibitions, and bull fights were frequent. The ladies are some of them very handsome. The land around Tepick appeared under good cultivation, and the soil rich. This town is supported by trade and agriculture: although there are mines in the vicinity, they are not worked. The average height of the thermometer is 68°. About three miles from this place, I noticed a beautiful waterfall 120 or 150 feet perpendicular, which is well worth the attention of travellers, who may visit Tepick: the scenery around it is very beautiful. As it is customary for every person travelling in Mexico to be provided with a passport, to obtain one, I was obliged to present myself to the chief Poletico, or governor, who very readily supplied me, and seemed desirous to render me all the service in his power. The inhabitants generally appeared polite and hospitable.

On the 3d of March, we started at 12 o'clock on our journey, in company with a Spanish supercargo and servant. Our route lay over a fair horse road, and through a beautiful, but poorly cultivated tract of country. We passed several small villages, which appeared of not much consequence. At 8 P. M., we arrived at a tavern, in the village of

San Donel, and after considerable trouble were enabled to get a miserable supper, and as the house had only three rooms, and those were all occupied, we were constantly disturbed during the night by the arrival of travellers, who, not having come in time to secure quarters within, were obliged to take up with an outside birth. During the evening, we were much amused by the conversation of a native, who favored us with an account of his many feats in smuggling, which seems to be the usual topic of the Mexicans residing near the seacoast. The distance travelled this day was twenty-one miles.

At daylight the next day, we recommenced our journey over a very stony and narrow road, and, at twelve, breakfasted at a most miserable village, called San Isabel. We soon resumed our journey and at 2. P. M., passed over a very large tract, several miles in extent, of large masses of black cinder stones thrown out 70 or 80 years ago by the volcano Ahuacatlan. Nevertheless, the inhabitants of this place have taken the trouble to make a bad horse road over these stones, for their own convenience. In a very conspicuous part of the road, they have erected a monument with the following modest inscription, "The benevolent people of Ahuacatlan made this road, 1825." At 8. P. M., we arrived at the village of Ahuacatlan, containing 300 buildings some tolerably handsome, several public edifices, and about 5 or 6000 inhabitants, who are principally muleteers and farmers. The land in the vicinity appeared well watered and cultivated. This village is supported by agriculture and trade. We travelled this day forty-two miles.

March 5th. Our last night's quarters were tolerably good. At daylight we resumed our journey over a rough and mountainous road. Here I was surprised at the appearance of a large iron cannon lying in the path. My guide informed me that it was carried here and abandoned by the Spaniards, about twenty years since. It was a twenty-four pounder. From some of the high mountains we ascended this day, the prospects were finer than I had ever before witnessed, and the road equally as dangerous, or more so than I had before travelled. At 12 we stopped to dine in a low deep baranca, or ravine, surrounded on all sides by very high mountains. The inhabitants, with very few exceptions, were troubled with large swelled throats, called Goitre, which disease is said to be occasioned by drinking the water of a small stream running through the village. We continued our journey up zig-zag paths, through gullies washed by the rain, and over loose stones. Early in the evening, being favored with the light of the moon, we arrived at the village of Muchitlilte. Here we found a company of soldiers stationed, for the protection of the road. It is customary wherever a murder has been committed to put up a wooden cross, and we have counted on our road more than a hundred. We travelled this day forty-two miles; a very small portion of the land we passed by was cultivated; our height above the sea was 8000 feet.

Early the next morning, we commenced our journey for the day. The road led over hill and dale, and was rather a poor one. I noticed some very fine patches in the valleys under high cultivation, and several settlements of huts. At 12 o'clock, we stopped to dine in the town of Magdaline, containing several public buildings, 300 private houses, and about 6000 inhabitants. At 2. P. M. we started again over rather a good road, and in a few hours arrived at the town of Teceli situated at the foot

of a high hill, down which the road descends. From the zig-zag road, the town and surrounding country afford a most beautiful prospect. Teceli contains a number of buildings and 6 or 7000 inhabitants. Its support is derived from the very extensive manufacture of Muscal, a species of rum extracted from the Maguea plant. The inhabitants are also engaged in agriculture, and the manufacture of rope from the fibres of the Maguea plant. The country around this place, in every direction, is under cultivation, and as the Maguea plant seems to monopolize a considerable proportion of land in this vicinity, I will attempt to give a description of it. It is first planted from slips at regular distances, and the land on which it grows must have considerable attention paid to it, in the way of enriching the soil. When it arrives at perfection, which is at the end of six or seven years, its height is ten or twelve feet, and its circumference about the size of a barrel. It has the appearance of a large bunch of rushes. When it has arrived at maturity, a hole is cut at the top of the trunk, where is a space containing several quarts of water. After dipping out the water in the morning, they cover the top again, and for several years this plant yields to its owner every morning and night, its quantity of juice. From this juice is distilled the Muscal or rum. They also manufacture a species of drink from the juice of the Maguea, called by the natives "pulkie," which with a little sugar makes a very pleasant beverage in warm weather, and of which the Mexicans all appear fond. At 8. P. M. we arrived at a village, called Matilan, having travelled this day forty-five miles. Matilan contains about 500 houses and two or three public buildings, with about 5000 inhabitants. It is supported by the cultivation of the Maguea plant, and the manufacture of rum or Muscal.

(To be continued.)



VIEW ON THE LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY.

The wood-cut at the top of this article, is a view of the Liverpool and Manchester Rail-way at Runcorn-Gap. The train of carriages drawn by a locomotive are seen on the Liverpool and Manchester rail-way, one above the other, on the viaduct of the Doric order. This rail-way cost in its construction between Liverpool and Manchester about one million of pounds; and their last half-year's expenses appear by the Report of the Directors in June last to have been very heavy, viz. £47,770 15s.; to which, if we add interest of capital and the gross annual outlay, at this rate, appears to be £145,541 10s.

The profits of this Company for six months, ending 31st of December 1832, were £40,783 3s. 7d.; ditto, ending 30th of June, 1832, £28,048 4s. 9d. The passengers carried were, in the former half-year, 256,321; and in the latter half-year, 174,122: and besides this, there appears to have been upwards of 60,000 tons of goods and coals carried the whole distance, each half year, besides considerable traffic on the Bolton junction. The above number of passengers, 174,122, were whirled along in 2635 trips of the locomotives

THE PRINTING-PRESS IN TURKEY.

Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone, in his very interesting Account of the Kingdom of Caubul (a country near the higher waters of the Indus, between India and Persia), and of the scattered Afghan tribes dependant thereon, gives the following anecdote of the Naikpeekhail, who, like the rest, profess the Mahometan religion, but are so barbarous that even reading is looked down on as an unmanly accomplishment among them.

"Some men of the Naikpeekhail found a Mollah, or doctor of the Mahometan faith, copying the Khorah, or their bible, and not well understanding the case, they struck his head off, saying, 'You tell us these books come from God, and here are you making them yourself.'"

The Turks are not quite so ignorant as this, but even they, not many years ago, when Sultan Selim introduced the art of printing, were led to believe that it was sinful to print the Khoran—that nothing but the pen and hand-writing could, without impiety, multiply the copies of their Scriptures. Other works might go through the press, but unfortunately, at the time, the Turks read no book except the Khoran, and so the inestimable benefit of printing was to be thrown away upon them! This absurd prejudice originated in, or was kept alive by, the Turkish copyists who gained a livelihood by transcribing the Khoran, each copy of which cost the people a hundred times as much as the copy the press could have afforded, and the printed copy, besides, would have been infinitely the more distinct and legible of the two.

The present Sultan, among his many reforms and improvements, has succeeded to set the press to work in earnest. Many elementary works have been printed, some three or four of a higher character, on History and general Geography, and now a newspaper (that novelty for the Turks!) comes regularly from the Sultan's printing-offices, and is circulated through the vast empire. We are informed by a friend, who writes from Constantinople, that it is a very interesting sight to see the effects that have already sprung from these salutary measures. Instead of every coffee-house being crowded as it used to be, by idle, silent, stupid loungers, doing nothing but smoking their pipes, you find them now, (in less numbers indeed, which is also a good thing,) occupied by men attentively reading the newspaper, or conning over "the 'ast new work" neatly printed, and sold at a very cheap price. Before this, and almost up to last year, they were in the condition that all Europe was in four hundred years ago, or previously to the invention of printing, when only the comparatively rich could afford to buy a book or anything to read. Even on the quays of the port, and in the bazaars of Constantinople, you now see Turks occupying their leisure moments with the productions of the press, which is thus becoming day by day more and more active.

TEA.

Tea was first imported into Europe by the Dutch East-India Company, in the early part of the seventeenth century; but it was not until the year 1666 that a small quantity was brought over from Holland to England by the Lords Arlington and Ossory: and yet, from a period earlier than any to which the memories of any of the existing generation can reach, tea has been one of the principal necessities of life among all classes of the community. To provide a sufficient supply of this aliment, many thousand tons of shipping are annually employed in trading with a people by whom all dealings with foreigners are merely tolerated; and from this recently-acquired taste, a very large and easily-collected revenue is obtained by the state.

The tea-plant is a native of China or Japan, and probably of both. It has been used among the



natives of the former country from time immemorial. It is only in a particular tract of the Chinese empire that the plant is cultivated; and this tract, which is situated on the eastern side, between the 30th and 33d degrees of north latitude, is distinguished by the natives as "the tea country." The more northern part of China would be too cold; and farther south the heat would be too great. There are, however, a few small plantations to be seen near to Canton.

The Chinese give to the plant the name of *tcha* or *tha*. It is propagated by them from seeds, which are deposited in rows four or five feet asunder; and so uncertain is their vegetation, even in their native climate, that it is found necessary to sow as many as seven or eight seeds in every hole. The ground between each row is always kept free from weeds, and the plants are not allowed to attain a higher growth than admits of the leaves being conveniently gathered. The first crop of leaves is not collected until the third year after sowing; and when the trees are six or seven years old, the produce becomes so inferior that they are removed to make room for a fresh succession.

The flowers of the tea-tree are white, and somewhat resemble the wild rose of our hedges: these flowers are succeeded by soft green berries or pods, containing each from one to three white seeds. The plant will grow in either low or elevated situations, but always thrives best and furnishes leaves of the finest quality when produced in light stony ground.

The leaves are gathered from one to four times during the year, according to the age of the trees. Most commonly there are three periods of gathering; the first commences about the middle of April;

the second at Midsummer; and the last is accomplished during August and September. The following cut of tea-gathering is from a Chinese drawing. The leaves that are earliest gathered



are of the most delicate color and most aromatic flavor, with the least portion of either fibre or bitterness. Leaves of the second gathering are of a dull green color, and have less valuable qualities than the former; while those which are last collected are of a dark green, and possess an inferior value. The quality is farther influenced by the age of the wood on which the leaves are borne, and by the degree of exposure to which they have been accustomed; leaves from young wood, and those most exposed, being always the best.

The leaves, as soon as gathered, are put into wide shallow baskets, and placed in the air or wind, or sunshine, during some hours. They are then placed on a flat cast-iron pan, over a stove heated with charcoal, from a half to three quarters of a pound of leaves being operated on at one time. These leaves are stirred quickly about with a kind of brush, and are then as quickly swept off the pan into baskets. The next process is that of rolling, which is effected by carefully rubbing them between men's hands; after which they are again put, in larger quantities, on the pan, and subjected anew to heat, but at this time to a lower degree than at first, and just sufficient to dry them effectually without risk of scorching. This effected, the tea is placed on a table and carefully picked over, every unsightly or imperfectly-dried leaf that is detected being removed from the rest, in order that the sample may present a more even and a better appearance when offered for sale.

The names by which some of the principal sorts of tea are known in China, are taken from the places in which they are produced, while others are distinguished according to the periods of their gathering, the manner employed in curing, or other extrinsic circumstances. It is a commonly received opinion, that the distinctive color of green tea is imparted to it by sheets of copper, upon which it is dried. For this belief there is not, however, the smallest foundation in fact, since copper is never used for the purpose. Repeated experiments have been made to discover, by an unerring test, whether the leaves of green tea contain any impregnation of copper, but in no case has any trace of this metal been detected.

The Chinese do not use their tea until it is about a year old, considering that it is too actively narcotic when new. Tea is yet older when it is brought into consumption in England, as, in addition to the length of time occupied in its collection and transport to that country, the East-India Company are obliged by their charter to have always a supply sufficient for one year's consumption in their Lon-

don warehouses; and this regulation, which enhances the price to the consumer, is said to have been made by way of guarding in some measure against the inconveniences that would attend any interruption to a trade entirely dependant upon the caprice of an arbitrary government.

The people of China partake of tea at all their meals, and frequently at other times of the day. They drink the infusion prepared in the same manner as we employ, but they do not mix with it either sugar or milk. The working classes in that country are obliged to content themselves with a very weak infusion. Mr. Anderson, in his Narrative of Lord Macartney's Embassy, relates that the natives in attendance never failed to beg the tea-leaves remaining after the Europeans had breakfasted, and with these, after submitting them again to boiling water, they made a beverage which they acknowledged was better than any they could ordinarily obtain.

BISSET, THE ANIMAL TEACHER.

Few individuals have presented so striking an instance of patience and eccentricity as Bisset, the extraordinary teacher of animals. He was a native of Perth, in Scotland, and an industrious shoemaker, until the notion of teaching animals attracted his attention in the year 1759. Reading an account of a remarkable horse shown at St. Germain's, curiosity led him to experiment on a horse and a dog, which he bought in London, and he succeeded in training these beyond all expectation. Two monkeys were the next pupils he took in hand, one of which he taught to dance and tumble on the rope, whilst the other held a candle in one paw for his companion, and with the other played the barrel organ. These antic animals he also instructed to play several fanciful tricks, such as drinking to the company, riding and tumbling on a horse's back, and going through several regular dances with a dog. Being a man of unwearied patience, three young cats were the next objects of his tuition. He taught those domestic tigers to strike their paws in such directions on the dulcimer, as to produce several regular tunes, having music-books before them, and squalling at the same time in different keys or tones, first, second, and third, by way of concert. He afterwards was induced to make a public exhibition of his animals, and the well known *Cats' Opera*, in which they performed, was advertised in the Haymarket Theatre. The horse, the dog, the monkeys, and the cats, went through their several parts with uncommon applause to crowded houses; and, in a few days, Bisset found himself possessed of nearly a thousand pounds, to reward his ingenuity and perseverance.

This success excited Bisset's desire to extend his dominion over other animals, including even the feathered kind. He procured a young leveret, and reared it to beat several marches on the drum, with its hind legs, until it became a good stout hare. He taught canary birds, linnets, and sparrows, to spell the name of any person in company, to distinguish the hour and minute of time, and perform many other surprising feats: he trained six turkey cocks to go through a regular country dance; but, in doing this, confessed he adopted the eastern method, by which camels are made to dance, by heating the floor. In the course of six months' teaching, he made a turtle fetch and carry like a dog; and having chalked the floor and blackened

its claws, could direct it to trace out any given name in the company. He trained a dog and a cat to go through many amazing performances. His confidence even led him to try experiments on a goldfish, which he did not despair of making perfectly tractable. But, some time afterwards, a doubt having started to him, whether the obstinacy of a pig could be conquered, his usual patient fortitude was devoted to the experiment. He bought a black sucking pig, and trained it to lie under the stool at which he sat at work. At various intervals, during six or seven months, he tried in vain to bring the young boar to his purpose; and, despairing of every kind of success, he was on the point of giving it away, when it struck him to adopt a new mode of teaching; in consequence of which, in the course of sixteen months, he made an animal, supposed the most obstinate and perverse in the world, to become the most tractable. In August 1783, he once again turned itinerant, and took his learned pig to Dublin, where it was shown for two or three nights. It was not only under full command, but appeared as pliant and good-natured as a spaniel. When the weather made it necessary that he should move into the city, he obtained the permission of the chief magistrate, and exhibited the pig in Dame Street. "It was seen," says the author of *Anthologia Hibernica*, "for two or three days by many persons of respectability, to spell, without any apparent direction, the names of those in the company; to cast up accounts, and to point out even the words thought of by persons present; to tell exactly the hour, minutes, and seconds; to point out the married, to kneel, and to make his obeisance to the company," &c. &c. Poor Bisset was thus in a fair way of "bringing his pig to a good market," when a man, whose insolence disgraced authority, broke into the rooms without any sort of pretext, assaulted the unoffending man, and drew his sword to kill the swine, an animal that, in the practice of good breeding, was superior to his assailant. The injured Bisset pleaded in vain the permission that had been granted him; he was threatened to be dragged to prison. He was now constrained to return home, but the agitation of his mind threw him into a fit of illness, and he died, a few days after, at Chester, on his way to London.

SONG.

BY THE REV. THOMAS DALE.

O, breathe no more that simple air,—
Though soft and sweet thy wild notes swell,
To me the only tale they tell

Is cold despair!—

I heard it once from lips as fair,
I heard it in as sweet a tone,—
Now I am left on earth alone,
And she is—where?

How have those well-known sounds renewed
The dreams of earlier, happier hours,
When life—a desert now—was strewed

With fairy flowers!—

Then all was bright, and fond, and fair,—
Now flowers are faded, joys are fled,
And heart and hope are with the dead,
For she is—where?

Can I then love the air she loved?
Can I then hear the melting strain
Which brings her to my soul again,
Calm and unmoved?—

And thou to blame my tears forbear;
For while I list, sweet maid! to thee,
Remembrance whispers, "such was she,"—
And she is—where?



Street, Mosque, and Bazar in Ispahan.

ISPAHAN.

On the southern boundary of Persia we find the remains of Ispahan, that immense city, to which Chardin gives thirty-three miles in circumference, and which, when he visited it, contained from 6 to 700,000 inhabitants. This superb capital, which the Persians considered as one half of the world, has now left a mere shadow of its former grandeur. The large spaces which served as pleasure grounds to the avenues, are now converted into common gardens. We may travel for three hours on country roads, which were formerly streets leading to the centre of the city. Still, however, according to the account of M. Olivier, the bazars constructed by Shah-Abbas, which were covered in with vaults, and lighted by numerous domes, are of prodigious extent, and proclaim the former magnificence of the city. Sir R. K. Porter says he travelled under its massy arches considerably more than a mile, to where they terminate at the northern angle of the Royal Square, and that, after crossing the square, the bazar is continued at the opposite angle.

This vast square, called the Maidan Shah, one of the most extensive in the world, was formerly one of the chief ornaments of Ispahan; enriched with shops, where every commodity of luxury and splendid manufacture was exposed. Here also the troops were exercised, and the nobility exhibited their Asiatic tournaments before their king. In the centre of each side of this immense area, stands some edifice, remarkable for grandeur or for character. In the northwest is the great gate of entrance to the bazar, on which, in former times, stood the celebrated clock of Ispahan. The southeastern side shows the Meshed-Shah, a superb mosque, built by Shah-Abbas, and dedicated to Mehedi, one of the twelve Imâns. On the northeast is the mosque of Loft Ullah; and on the southwest the Ali Kapi, or gate of Ali, forms a majestic parallel to the bazar porch on the opposite side. The length of the square is about 2000 feet, and its breadth 700. Each face presents a double range of arches, the one over the other; the longest range consisting of eighty-six, and the shortest of thirty. At a few paces from these arcades there is a constant supply of water, running through a canal of black marble, and opening into a variety of basins of the same substance, which are constantly full,

and rendered more cool and refreshing by a close shade of elegant trees. The Sefi, or Ali Kapi gate, is described as one of the most perfect pieces of brick work to be found in the Persian empire. Over the great entrance it rises into several stories, and the flights of steps which lead to them are formed of the most beautiful variegated porcelain. The roof of the large chamber over the gate is sumptuously gilt and carved, and supported by eighteen lofty octagonal pillars, once richly emblazoned in gold, but now faded. It is open on all sides but one. On the side nearest the balustrade facing the square, a round platform marks the spot on which Shah-Abbas used to sit, and from whence he reviewed his chivalry, galloping and skirmishing beneath, or witnessed the combats of wild animals. The freshness of all the buildings is particularly striking to a European, or the inhabitant of any comparatively humid country, in which the atmosphere cherishes a vegetation of mosses, lichens, and other cryptogamous plants, which we particularly associate in our minds with the spectacle of decay. Above this there is a numerous range of small rooms, some of them evidently appropriated to purposes of carousal. From the roof of the building an extensive view of the city is obtained. In former times this was undoubtedly splendid, but at present, with the exception of the palaces in the gardens, the whole mass below is one mouldering succession of ruinous houses, mosques, and shapeless structures, which had formerly been the mansions of the nobility, broken by groups or lines of various tall trees, which once made part of the gardens of the houses now in ruins. Ispahan, though two-thirds of it are in ruins, contains more than 200,000 inhabitants.

At present, Ispahan is in some degree recovering from its state of abject decay. Mohammed Hussein, whose talents have raised him to the place of Ameen-a-Doolah, or second minister of the king, being a native of Ispahan, has erected in it a splendid new palace, and enlarged and beautified many of the former edifices. Having, in the faithful discharge of his public duty, encouraged agriculture, and recolonized many deserted villages in the country, he has used similar means to populate the habitable streets of this city, by promoting the old manufactures, and striving to attract commerce back to its ancient channels.

ROCKS OF LAKE SUPERIOR.

BY GOVERNOR CASE.

Upon the southern coast of Lake Superior about fifty miles from the falls of St. Mary, are the immense precipitous cliffs, called by the voyagers, Le Pottrail and the Pictured Rocks. This name has been given them in consequence of the different appearance which they present to the traveller, as he passes their base in his canoe. It requires little aid from the imagination to discern in them the castellated tower and lofty dome, spires and pinnacles, and every sublime, grotesque or fantastic shape which the genius of architecture ever invented. These cliffs are an unbroken mass of rocks, rising to an elevation of 300 feet above the level of the lake, and stretching along the coast for fifteen miles. The voyagers never pass this coast except in the most profound calm; and the Indians, before they make the attempt, offer their accustomed oblations, to propitiate the favor of their *Monitas*. The eye instinctively searches along this eternal rampart for a single place of security; but the search is vain. With an impassable barrier of rocks on one side, and an interminable expanse of water on the other, a sudden storm upon the lake would as inevitably insure destruction of the passenger in his frail canoe, as if he were on the brink of the cataract of Niagara. The rock itself is a sandstone, which is disintegrated by the continual action of the water with comparative facility. There are no broken masses upon which the eye can rest and find relief. The lake is so deep, that these masses as they are torn from the precipice, are concealed beneath its water until they are reduced to sand.—The action of the waves has undermined every projecting point; and there the immense precipice rests upon arches, and the foundation is intersected with caverns in every direction.

When we passed this immense fabric of nature, the wind was still and the lake was calm. But even the slightest motion of the waves, which in the most profound calm, agitates these internal seas, swept through the deep caverns with the noise of distant thunder, and died away upon the ear, as it rolled forward in the dark recesses inaccessible to human observation. No sound more melancholy or more awful ever vibrated on human nerves. It has left an impression which neither time nor distance can ever efface. Resting in a frail bark canoe upon the limpid waters of the lake; we seemed almost suspended in air, so pellucid is the element upon which we floated. In gazing upon the towering battlements which impended over us, and from which the smallest fragment would have destroyed us, we felt, and felt intensely, our own insignificance. No situation can be imagined, more appalling to the courage, or more humbling to the pride of man. We appeared like a speck upon the face of creation. Our whole party, Indians and voyagers, and soldiers, officers and servants, contemplated in mute astonishment the awful display of creative power, at whose base we hung; and no sound broke upon the ear to interrupt the ceaseless roaring of the waters. No splendid cathedral, no temple built with human hands, no pomp of worship could ever impress the spectator with such humility, and so strong a conviction of the immense distance between him and the Almighty Architect.

CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD

For the discovery of this wonderful function of nature, we are indebted to Dr. Harvey, who lived in the time of Queen Elizabeth; the knowledge of which has conferred incalculable advantages upon mankind. The velocity with which the blood must flow when the heart beats *violently* is inconceivable; for, in the *ordinary* course of nature, the heart contracts 4000 times in one hour, each time ejecting one ounce of blood.

To be more particular in our description, it is necessary to state, that there is provided in the central part of the body a hollow muscle, invested with spiral tubes, running in both directions. By the contraction of these fibres, the sides of the muscular cavities are necessarily squeezed together, so as to force out from them any fluid which they may at that time contain: by the relaxation of the same fibres, the cavities are in their turn dilated; and, of course, prepared to admit every fluid which may be poured into them. Into these cavities are inserted the great trunks, both of the arteries which carry out the blood, and of the veins which bring it back. This is a general account of the apparatus; and the simplest idea of its action is, that by each contraction a portion of blood is forced as by a syringe into the arteries; and at each dilation an equal portion is received from the veins. This produces, at each pulse, a motion and change in the mass of blood to the amount of what the cavity contains, which in a full grown human heart is about an ounce, or two table-spoonfuls. Each cavity at least will contain one ounce of blood. The heart contracts 4000 times in one hour; from which it follows, that there passes through the heart every

hour 4000 ounces, or 350 pounds of blood. Now the whole mass of blood is about twenty five pounds; so that a quantity of blood, equal to the whole blood within the body, passes through the heart fourteen times in one hour, which is about one ounce every four minutes.

Adventure with a Bear. The Kennebec Journal relates a story of a land speculator, who while hunting for a timber lot, climbed up on the stump of a tree, which having been cut in a very deep snow, was about nine feet high. His object was to attain a position where he could see all the pine trees near by, and to look for a navigable stream to float his logs. The stump was hollow, but our land buyer was so intent upon the fortune he expected to make, that he became careless of his footing, like the milk-maid in the fable, and in the midst of his golden visions he stepped backward and fell plump into the hollow tree. In vain he tried to ascend. There he was pent up, with not a living soul in ten miles of him. His horrid fate seemed inevitable. He thought no more of bonded lands, but abandoned himself to despair, and a lingering death by starvation. The wind sighed mournfully among the trees, whose branches waved over the inaccessible mouth of his wooden cavern. No other sound was heard, from man or beast or bird—when suddenly he was aroused by a scratching outside. The next moment the hole above him was darkened by some dense body descending towards him. It proved to be an enormous black bear. As soon as the shaggy posterior of the animal came within reach of our hero, he grasped the long hair firmly with both hands. Bruin, not knowing what sort of a bedfellow he had to deal with, scratched with all his might for the top of the stump, and drew the land buyer up with him.

VARIETIES.

A St. Louis paper states that many of our enterprising young men have already left, and others are preparing to take their departure, for Santa Fe. The upper country will also send out an unusual number of traders. They are to rendezvous at the Round Prairie, near the Missouri line, whence they will be escorted as far as the boundary line, between the United States and New Spain, by a detachment of the United States army.

It should be a matter of national pride to us, as the first projectors of Temperance Societies, to see them increasing at home and abroad, and bearing health and happiness in each increase. At the late meeting of the British and Foreign Temperance Society, in London, it was stated that the number of British people who had up to that period associated to abandon ardent spirits as a beverage was 150,000.

Intelligence from Colombia has been received to the 17th March, at which time the republic was in the enjoyment of peace and prosperity. Gen. Santander had been elected President, Dr. Joachin Mosquera, Vice President and Gen. H. Lopez entered on the 1st of March upon his duties as Secretary of State, of War and of Marine.

A personal assault upon the President was committed on the 6th of May, by Beverly Randolph, late a Lieutenant in the U. S. Navy. General Jackson, with several members of his cabinet, was in the steamboat *Cygnat*, which had stopped a few minutes at Alexandria on the way to Fredericksburg. The President was sitting in the cabin and reading a newspaper, when Randolph made the unjustifiable assault.

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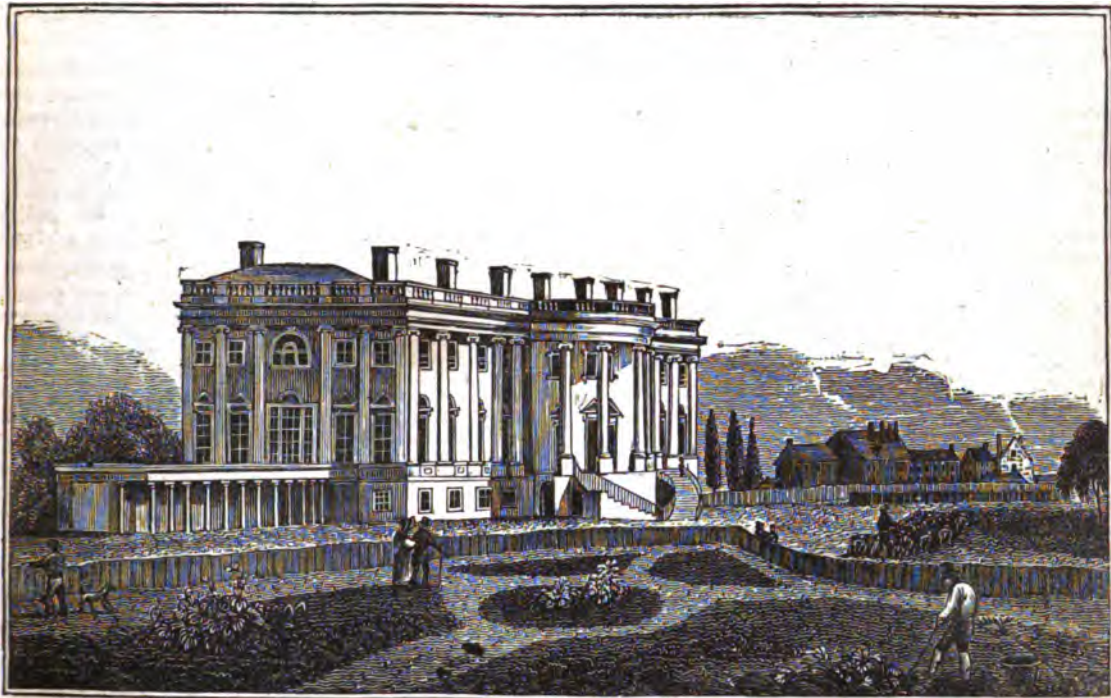
THE PEOPLE'S MAGAZINE.

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No. 7.

SATURDAY, JUNE 15, 1833.

VOL. I.



THE PRESIDENT'S HOUSE.

On the 14th of March, 1792, the Commissioners of the City of Washington offered a premium, by advertisement in the public papers, for a plan for the President's house, and another for a design for the Capitol, to be presented on the 15th July.

The plan for the President's house, presented by Capt. James Hoban, was approved, and on the 13th October a procession was formed for laying the corner-stone of that building.

The President's house was wholly constructed after the designs and under the direction of Capt. James Hoban, and the interior was rebuilt by him, after it had been destroyed by the enemy in 1814. It is situated at the westerly part of the city, at the intersection of Pennsylvania, New York, Connecticut and Vermont avenues, which radiate from this point as a centre.

It stands near the centre of a plat of ground of twenty acres, at an elevation of 44 feet above the usual high water of the river Potomac. The entrance front faces north, upon an open square, and the garden front to the south; opens to an extensive and finely varied view of the Capitol and most improved part of the city, of the river and Potomac bridge, and of the opposite Virginia and Maryland shores. The building is 170 feet front and 86 deep, is built of white free stone, with Ionic pilasters, comprehending two lofty stories of rooms, crowned with a stone balustrade. The north front is ornamented with a lofty portico, of four Ionic columns in front, and projecting with three columns. The outer intercolumniation is for carriages to drive into, and place company under shelter; the middle space is the entrance for those visitors who come on foot; the steps from both lead to a broad plat-

form in front of the door of entrance. The garden front is varied by having a rusticated basement story under the Ionic ordonnance, and by a semi-circular projecting colonnade of six columns, with two flights of steps leading from the ground, to the level of the principal story.

In the interior, the north entrance opens immediately into a spacious hall of 40 by 50 feet, furnished simply, with plain stuccoed walls. Advancing through a screen of Ionic columns, apparently of white marble, but only of a well executed imitation, in composition: the door in the centre opens into the oval room, or *saloon*, of 40 by 30 feet—the walls covered with plain crimson flock paper, with deep gilded borders. The marble chimney piece and tables, the crimson silk drapery of the window curtains and chairs, with the carpet of French manufacture, wove in one piece, with the arms of the United States in the centre, two large mirrors and a splendid cut glass chandelier, give the appearance of a rich and consistent style of decoration and finish. On each side of this room, and communicating therewith by large doors, is a square room of 30 by 22 feet. These three rooms form the suit of apartments in which company is usually received on parade occasions. To the west of these is the *company dining room*, 40 by 30, and on the North West corner is the family dining room. All these rooms are finished handsomely, but less richly than the oval room; the walls are covered with green, yellow, white and blue papers, sprinkled with gold stars and with gilt borders. The stairs, for family use, are in a cross entry at this end, with store rooms, china closets, &c., between the two dining rooms. On the east end of the house is the large *banqueting room*, extend

ing the whole depth of the building, with windows to the north and south, and a large glass door to the east, leading to the terrace roof of the offices. This room is 80 by 40 feet wide, and 22 high; it is finished with handsome stucco cornice. It has lately been fitted up in a very neat manner. The paper is of fine lemon color, with a rich cloth border. There are four mantels of black marble with Italian black and gold fronts, and handsome grates; each mantel is surmounted with a mirror, the plates of which measure 100 by 58 inches, framed in a very beautiful style, and a pair of rich ten-light lamps, bronzed and gilt, with a row of drops around the fountain; and a pair of French cepina vases, richly gilt and painted, with glass shades and flowers. There are three handsome chandeliers of 18 lights each, of cut glass of remarkable brilliancy, in gilt mountings, with a number of gilt bracket lights of five candles each. The carpet, which contains nearly 500 yards, is of fine Brussels, of fawn, blue and yellow, with red border. Under each chandelier is placed a round table of rich workmanship of Italian black and gold slabs—and each pier is filled with a table corresponding with the round tables, with splendid lamps on each of them. The curtains are of light blue moorven with yellow draperies, with a gilded eagle, holding up the drapery of each. On the cornices of the curtains in a line of stairs, and over the semi-circle of the door, besides large gilded and ornamented rays, are 24 gilded stars, emblematic of the States. The sofas and chairs are covered with blue damask satin. All the furniture corresponds in color and style. The principal stairs on the left of the entrance hall, are spacious and covered with Brussels carpeting. On ascending these, the visiter to the President is led into a spacious anti-room, to wait for introduction in regular succession with others, and may have considerable time to look from the south windows upon the beautiful prospect before him; when in course to be introduced, he ascends a few steps and finds himself in the East corner chamber, the President's Cabinet Room, where every thing announces the august simplicity of our government. The room is about 40 feet wide, and finished like those below. The centre is occupied by a large table, completely covered with books, papers, parchments, &c., and seems like a general repository of every thing that may be wanted for reference; while the President is seated at a smaller table near the fire place, covered with the papers which are the subject of his immediate attention; and which, by their number, admonish the visiter to occupy no more of his time, for objects of business or civility, than necessity requires. The other chambers are appropriated to family purposes.

Some persons, under every administration, have objected to the style of the President's mansion, as bordering on unnecessary state and parade—but we are of a different opinion. It is the house provided by the people for the residence of the chief magistrate of their choice, and he is the tenant at certain seasons for four, or at most eight years: it hardly equals the seats of many of the nobility and wealthy commoners of England, and bears no comparison with the residences of the petty princes of Germany or the grand dukes of Italy: it exhibits no rich marbles, fine statues, nor costly paintings. It is what the mansion of the head of this Republic should be, large enough for public and family purposes, and should be finished and maintained in a style to gratify every wish

for convenience and pleasure. The state of the grounds will not meet this description; they have an unfinished and neglected appearance; we hope they will not long remain so rude and uncultivated. *Historical Sketches of the District of Columbia.*

JOURNAL OF A TOUR FROM THE PACIFIC TO THE ATLANTIC OCEAN, THROUGH THE INTERIOR OF MEXICO, IN 1827, BY WM. R. BOWERS OF PROVIDENCE.

(Continued from the last number)

March 7th. After passing a very uncomfortable night, on account of the vermin with which this house was infested, and paying an extravagant price for our miserable fare, we started at daylight on our journey. I had the good fortune to recover one of my mules, which had strayed before daylight, with a load of baggage on its back. We found him in the possession of two soldiers about four miles from the road, and in quite an opposite direction from our course. I would advise any person travelling in this country not to trust his baggage too much to his servants.

We fell in company with a Spanish priest and his niece, who proved agreeable. The former made a great many unsuccessful attempts to "jockey" a horse with us. Our road this day has been rather dusty but good for horses, and through a tract of country but very little cultivated. At noon we stopped to breakfast at a house twenty-one miles from the city of Guadalajara, and here we found a company of soldiers stationed. At this house a few months since an English gentleman was robbed of several thousand dollars, while his servant's throat was cut from ear to ear. The house was attacked in the night by a band of thirty robbers, who succeeded but too well in their enterprise. I noticed the marks of fifteen shot-holes still visible near the window. Most of the remainder of the road lay over an uncultivated plain. At 5 P. M. we arrived at the beautiful city of Guadalajara, and accepted the kind invitation of an English merchant to lodge at his house. This place is about 270 miles distant from San Blas.

Guadalajara, or Guadalaxahara, is a beautiful city containing ten or twelve handsome churches, two or three convents and colleges, several good academies, (one on the Lancasterian System,) two very fine hospitals, a large mint, a palace, theatre, and other public buildings. The number of inhabitants may be estimated at from 65 to 70,000. The city is situated in the centre of a very extensive plain, and is regularly laid out in squares. The streets are well paved, the houses generally very neat and there are very large tracts of land laid out for pleasure grounds and walks, which with fine streams of water, beautiful trees, very tastefully arranged, combined with the good atmosphere of the place, (it being 7500 feet above the sea,) make a ride or walk very pleasant.

In these pleasure grounds, the inhabitants generally assemble in large parties to pass off an hour or two in the afternoon, and to show off their dress and equipage. The ladies are, for the most part, rather ordinary in their appearance, but improve with a stranger on acquaintance. I saw a few, however, who could be called handsome. There appears to be considerable animation in the city, and the inhabitants are generally a happy race of people. This place is supported by trade, being the grand mart of all this section of Mexico. There are no manufactories of consequence in the vicinity, except some for making coarse crockery-ware.

(To be continued.)



THE BAMBOO.

The bamboo is a native of the hottest regions of Asia. It is likewise to be found in America, but not in that abundance, with which it flourishes in the old world. It is never brought into this country in sufficient supply for any useful purposes, being rather an object of curiosity than of utility. But in the countries of its production it is one of the most universally useful plants. "There are about fifty varieties," says Mr. Loudon, in his *Botanical Dictionary*, "of the *Arundo bambos*, each of the most rapid growth, rising from fifty to eighty feet the first year, and the second perfecting its timber in hardness and elasticity. It grows in stools which are cut every two years. The quantity of timber furnished by an acre of bamboos is immense. Its uses are almost without end. In building it forms almost entire houses for the lower orders, and enters both into the construction and furniture of those of the higher class. Bridges, boats, masts, rigging, agricultural and other implements and machinery; carts, baskets, ropes, nets, sail-cloth, cups, pitchers, troughs, pipes for conveying water, pumps, fences for gardens and fields, &c. are made of it. Macerated in water it forms paper; the leaves are generally put round the tea sent to Europe: the thick inspissated juice is a favorite medicine. It is said to be indestructible by fire, to resist acids, and, by fusion with alkali, to form a transparent permanent glass."

PHILOSOPHY AND CONSISTENCY.

Among all the excellent things which Mrs. Barbauld has written, she never penned any thing better than her essay on the inconsistency of human expectations; it is full of sound philosophy. Every thing, says she, is marked at a settled price. Our time, our labor, our ingenuity, is so much ready money, which we are to lay out to the best advantage. Examine, compare, choose, reject; but stand to your own judgment, and do not, like children, when you have purchased one thing, re-

pine that you do not possess another, which you would not purchase. Would you be rich? Do you think that the single point worth sacrificing every thing else to? You may, then, be rich. Thousands have become so from the lowest beginnings by toil, and diligence, and attention to the minutest articles of expense and profit. But you must give up the pleasures of leisure, of an unembarrassed mind, and of a free unsuspicious temper. You must learn to do hard if not unjust things; and as for the embarrassment of a delicate and ingenuous spirit, it is necessary for you to get rid of it as fast as possible. You must not stop to enlarge your mind, polish your taste, or refine your sentiments; but must keep on in one unbeaten track, without turning aside to the right or to the left. "But," you say, "I cannot submit to drudgery like this; I feel a spirit above it." 'Tis well; be above it, then; only do not repine because you are not rich:

Is knowledge the pearl of price in your estimation? That too may be purchased by steady application, and long solitary hours of study and reflection. "But," says the man of letters, "what a hardship is it that many an illiterate fellow, who cannot construe the motto on his coach, shall raise a fortune, and make a figure, while I possess not the common necessities of life!" Was it for fortune, then, that you grew pale over the midnight lamp, and gave the sprightly years to study and reflection? You, then, have mistaken your path, and ill employed your industry. "What reward have I, then, for all my labor?" What reward! a large comprehensive soul, purged from vulgar fears and prejudices, able to interpret the works of man and God—a perpetual spring of fresh ideas, and the conscious dignity of superior intelligence. Good Heavens! what other reward can you ask? "But is it not a reproach upon the economy of Providence that such a one, who is a mean, dirty fellow, should have amassed wealth enough to buy half a nation?" Not the least. He made himself a mean, dirty fellow for that very end. He has paid his health, his conscience, and his liberty for it. Do you envy him his bargain? Will you hang your head in his presence because he outshines you in equipage and show? Lift up your brow with a noble confidence, and say to yourself, "I have not these things, it is true; but it is because I have not desired them nor sought them; it is because I possess something better. I have chosen my lot; I am content and satisfied." The most characteristic mark of a great mind is to choose some one object, which it considers important, and pursue that object through life. If we expect the purchase, we must pay the price.

THE EVENING CLOUD

A cloud lay cradled near the setting sun,
A gleam of crimson tinged its braided snow;
Long had I watched the glory moving on
O'er the soft radiance of the lake below.
Tranquil its spirit seemed, and floated slow:
E'en in its very motion there was rest;
While every breath of eve that chanced to blow
Wafted the traveller to the beauteous west.
Emblem, methought, of the departed soul,
To whose white robe the gleam of bliss is given;
And, by the breath of mercy, made to roll
Right onward to the golden gates of heaven,
Where to the eye of faith it peaceful lies,
And tells to man his glorious destinies.

WILSON



GALILEO.

The 19th of February by some accounts, but according to the best authorities the 15th, is the anniversary of the birth of one of the greatest philosophers of modern times, the celebrated GALILEO GALILEI. He was born at Pisa, in 1564. His family, which, till the middle of the 14th century, had borne the name of Bonajuti, was ancient and noble, but not wealthy; and his father, Vincenzo Galilei, appears to have been a person of very superior talents and accomplishments. He is the author of several treatises upon music, which show him to have been master both of the practice and theory of that art. Galileo was the eldest of a family of six children, three sons and three daughters. His boyhood, like that of Newton, and of many other distinguished cultivators of mathematical and physical science, evinced the natural bent of his genius by various mechanical contrivances which he produced; and he also showed a strong predilection and decided talent both for music and painting. It was resolved, however, that he should be educated for the medical profession; and with that view he was, in 1581, entered at the university of his native town. He appears to have applied himself, for some time, to the study of medicine. He contrived several little instruments for counting the pulse by the vibrations of a pendulum, which soon came into general use, under the name of *Pulsilogies*; and it was not till after many years that it was employed as a general measure of time. It was probably after this discovery that Galileo began the study of mathematics. From that instant he seemed to have found his true field. So fascinated was he with the beautiful truths of geometry, that his medical books henceforth remained unopened, or were only spread out over his Euclid to hide it from his father, who was at first so much grieved by his son's absorption in his new study, that he positively prohibited him from any longer indulging in it. After some time, however, seeing that his injunctions were insufficient to overcome the strong bias of nature, he yielded the point, and Galileo was permitted to take his own way. The year 1609 was the most momentous in the career of Galileo as an enlarger of the bounds of natural philosophy.

It was in this year that he made his grand discovery of the telescope—having been induced to turn his attention to the effect of a combination of magnifying glasses, by a report which was brought to him, while on a visit at Venice, of a wonderful instrument constructed on some such principle, which had just been sent to Italy from Holland. In point of fact, it appears that a rude species of telescope had been previously fabricated in that country; but Galileo, who had never seen this contrivance, was undoubtedly the true and sole inventor of the instrument in that form in which alone it could be applied to any scientific use.

The interest excited by this discovery transcended all that has ever been inspired by any of the other wonders of science. After having exhibited his new instrument for a few days, Galileo presented it to the Senate of Venice, who immediately elected him to a professorship for life, and made his salary one thousand florins. He then constructed another telescope for himself, and with that proceeded to examine the heavens. He had not long directed it to this, the field which has ever since been its principal domain, before he was rewarded with a succession of brilliant discoveries. The four satellites, or attendant moons, of Jupiter, revealed themselves for the first time to the human eye. Other stars unseen before met him in every quarter of the heavens to which he turned. Saturn showed his singular encompassing ring. The moon unveiled her seas and her mountains. The sun himself discovered spots of dark lying in the midst of his brightness. All these wonders were announced to the world by Galileo in the successive numbers of a publication which he entitled the "*Nuncius Siderius*, or Intelligence of the Heavens," a newspaper undoubtedly unrivalled for extraordinary tidings by any other that has ever appeared. In 1610 he was induced to resign his professorship at Padua, on the invitation of the Grand Duke of Tuscany to accept of the appointment of his first mathematician and philosopher at Pisa. Soon after his removal thither Galileo appears to have for the first time ventured upon openly teaching the Copernican system of the world, of the truth of which he had been many years before convinced. This bold step drew down upon the great philosopher a cruel and disgraceful persecution which terminated only with his life. An outcry was raised by the ignorant bigotry of the time, on the ground that in maintaining the doctrine of the earth's motion round the sun he was contradicting the language of Scripture, where, it was said, the earth was constantly spoken of as at rest. The day is gone by when it would have been necessary to attempt any formal refutation of this absurd notion, founded as it is upon a total misapprehension of what the object of the Scriptures is, which are intended to teach men morality and religion only, not mathematics or astronomy, and which would not have been even intelligible to those to whom they were first addressed, unless their language in regard to this and various other matters had been accommodated to the then universally prevailing opinions. In Galileo's day, however, the Church of Rome had not learned to admit this very obvious consideration. In 1616 Galileo, having gone to Rome on learning the hostility which was gathering against him, was graciously received by the Pope, but was commanded to abstain in future from teaching the doctrines of Copernicus. For some years the matter was allowed to sleep, till in 1632 the philosopher publish

ed his celebrated Dialogue on the two Systems of the World, the Ptolemaic and the Copernican, in which he took but little pains to disguise his thorough conviction of the truth of the latter. The rage of his enemies, who had been so long nearly silent, now burst upon him in a terrific storm. The book was consigned to the Inquisition, before which formidable tribunal the author was forthwith summoned to appear. He arrived at Rome on the 14th of February, 1633. We have not space to relate the history of the process. It is doubtful whether or no Galileo was actually put to the torture, but it is certain that on the 21st of June he was found guilty of heresy, and condemned to abjuration and imprisonment. His actual confinement in the dungeons of the Holy Office lasted only a few days; and after some months he was allowed to return to his country seat at Arcetri, near Florence, with a prohibition, however, against quitting that retirement, or even admitting the visits of his friends. Galileo survived this treatment for several years, during which he continued the active pursuit of his philosophical studies, and even sent to the press another important work, his Dialogues on the Laws of Motion. The rigor of his confinement, too, was after some time much relaxed; and although he never again left Arcetri (except once for a few months), he was permitted to enjoy the society of his friends in his own house. But other misfortunes now crowded upon his old age. His health had long been bad, and his fits of illness were now more frequent and painful than ever. In 1639 he was struck with total blindness. A few years before, the tie that bound him most strongly to life had been snapped by the death of his favorite daughter. Weighed down by these accumulated sorrows, on the 8th of January, 1642, the old man breathed his last at the advanced age of seventy-eight. For a full account of Galileo—of what he was and what he did—the reader ought to peruse his Life in the "Library of Useful Knowledge," from which the above rapid sketch has been abstracted. The subject of the philosopher and his times is there treated in ample detail, and illustrated with many disquisitions of the highest interest.

THE AIR BRAHMIN.

Most of our readers will recollect the celebrated Indian Jugglers, who a few years ago visited this country, and performed some very extraordinary feats at public exhibitions. One of them had acquired the astonishing and dangerous power of passing a naked metal blade into his stomach, or, as he himself termed it, of "swallowing a sword." He fell a sacrifice to his temerity: in one of his performances the blade taking a wrong direction, wounded him internally, and he expired in violent convulsions.

Another person of this description, but of a higher native caste, has lately appeared in India. His performance, though of a no less astonishing, is altogether of a harmless, nature. By the kindness of a friend we are enabled to present our readers with an engraving, from the original drawing of an Indian artist, together with an account, which may be relied upon, of this singular person, as he appears when exhibiting this strange feat.

The drawing was taken at the Government House at Madras, and represents the Cuddapah Brahmin, named Sheshal, in the act of sitting in the air, apparently without any support, an exploit



which he performs with great address. When he is about to exhibit, his attendants surround him with a blanket so as to screen him from the view of the spectators untill he is mounted; a signal is then given, the blanket is removed and he is beheld sitting in the posture represented in the sketch.

The only part of his body which appears to have any support whatever is the wrist of his right arm, which rests upon a deer skin rolled up and fixed horizontally before him to a perpendicular brass bar. This brass bar is fitted into the top of a small four legged stool, near one end of it. While in this attitude he appears engaged in prayer, holding in his hand a number of beads, and having his eyes half-closed. As soon as the exhibition, which usually continues only a few minutes, has ended, he is again screened by his attendants till he has dismounted and taken the whole of his apparatus to pieces, when he produces only the stool, the brass bar, and the deer skin for the inspection of the spectators.

In person he is a slender, middle sized man, and has attained a considerable age. He wears a long chintz gown, a yellow dyed turban, and a high waistband. Around his neck is suspended a row of large Pundaram beads.

Sheshal is frequently invited to the gardens of gentlemen residing at Madras, for the purpose of exhibiting his singular skill. By this means he obtains a considerable sum of money. A friend who has witnessed his performance, writes us the following account of it from Tanjore.

"He exhibited before me in the following man-

ner : he first allowed me to examine a stool about 18 inches in height, on the seat of which were two brass stars inlaid, a little larger than a dollar; he then displayed a hollow bamboo two feet in length and $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter. The next article was a roll of antelope skin, perhaps four inches in circumference, and two feet in length. The man then concealed himself in a large shawl, with these three articles and a large bag; after a delay of five minutes, during which he appeared very busy under the shawl, he ordered the covering to be taken off him, and he was discovered actually sitting cross-legged on the air; but leaning his right arm on the end of the antelope skin, which communicated horizontally with the hollow bamboo, which again was connected perpendicularly with the stool immediately over one of the brass stars. He sat for more than half an hour, counting his beads in his right hand, and without once changing the expression of his countenance which was quite calm, and as if this new mode of sitting was no exertion to him.

"I saw him exhibit four times, and each time tried my utmost to discover the secret but without success. A large bribe was offered to induce him to reveal his mode of performance, but he declined the explanation.

"I account for it thus. The brass stars conceal a receptacle for a steel bar passing through the hollow bamboo; the antelope skin conceals another steel rod which is screwed into the one in the bamboo; other machinery of the same kind passes through the man's sleeves and down his body, and supports a ring on which he sits."



THE SMALL CAPE EAGLE.

This fine little eagle appears to have escaped the net of Le Vaillant, and of all the other writers on the ornithology of the neighborhood of the Cape of Good Hope. It is, however, as we learn from Dr. Smith, its first, and hitherto sole describer, found throughout the whole of South Africa.

The length of this bird is about two feet four inches. It feeds commonly upon carrion, and is generally found in company with vultures throughout the whole of South Africa. The young are of a uniform tawny chestnut color, and without the brown variations observed on the old. There is one of these birds in the London Zoological Gardens, of which the following mention is made: "the beak is of a deep black; as are also the claws, the two outermost of which are small and but slightly

arched, while the innermost is much elongated and curved.

TAILORS.

There are some things in this world which astonished me when I first opened my eyes upon it, and which I have never since been able to understand. One of these is the popular ridicule about the business of a tailor. The arts and crafts of all alike refer to one grand object, the convenience and pleasure of the human race; and though there may be some shades of comparative dignity among them, I must profess I never yet could see any grounds, either in reason or jest, for the peculiar contempt thrown out upon one, which, to say the least of it, *eminently* conduces to the comfort of man. A joke is a joke, to be sure; but then it should be a *real* joke. It should have some bottom in the principles of ridiculous contrast, or else it cannot be what it pretends to be, and must consequently fall to the ground. Now, it strikes me that all the sniggering which there has been about tailors since the beginning of the world (the first attempt at the art, by the bye, was no laughing matter) has been quite in vain—perfect humbug—a mirth without the least foundation in nature; for, if we divest ourselves of all recollection of the traditional ridicule, and think of a tailor as he really is, why, there is positively nothing in the least ridiculous about him. The whole world has been upon the grin for six thousand years about one particular branch of general employment; and if the world were seriously questioned as to the source of its amusement, I verily believe, that not a single individual could give the least explanation. The truth is, the laughter at tailors is an entire delusion. While the world laughs, the artists themselves make riches, and then laugh in their turn,—with this difference, that they laugh with a cause. I am almost tempted to suspect that the tailors themselves are at the bottom of this plot of ridicule, in order that they may have the less competition and the higher wages; for again I positively say, I cannot see what there is about the business to be laughed at. Nobody ever thinks of laughing at a shoemaker, though he applies himself to clothe the very meanest part of the human body. Nay, the saddler, who furnishes clothes to a race of quadrupeds, is never laughed at; while few trades awaken the human sympathies so strongly as that of the blacksmith, who is relatively as much meaner in his employment than the saddler, as the shoemaker is than the tailor. What, then, is the meaning—what is the cause of all this six thousand years' laughing? If any man will give me a feasible answer, I will laugh too; for I like a joke as well as any body; but, upon my honor, I cannot laugh without a cause. I must see where the fun lies, or it is no fun for me.

If the mirth be, as I suspect, entirely groundless, what a curious subject for consideration! A large and respectable class of the community has been subjected, from apparently the beginning of the social world, to a system of general ridicule; and, when the matter is inquired into, it turns out that nothing can be shown in the circumstances of that class to make the ridicule merited. Men talk of the oppression of governments; but was there ever such oppression, such wanton persecution and cruelty, as this? Does any superior, in almost any instance, inflict such wrong upon those under him, as is here inflicted, by ordinary men, upon a part of their own set? How much discomfort there must have been in the course of time from this cause; and yet the jest turns out to want even the excuse of being a *jest*! Thousands of decent and worthy people have felt unhappy and degraded, that their neighbors might have an empty, unmeaning, witless laugh. The best of the joke is, that the human race must have paid immensely, in the course of time, for this silly sport. The tailors, very properly, would not make clothes and furnish laughing-stocks without payment for their services in both capacities. Their wages, therefore, have always been rather higher than those of other artisans; and few tradesmen are able to lend so much ready cash to good customers, as the London tailors. The fellows pocket the affront amazingly, having become quite reconciled to a contempt which is accompanied with so much of the substantial blessings of life. But the world should not allow this. It should say, "No, no, Messieurs Tailors, we see through the folly of our jesting, and would rather want it altogether, than pay so much more than is proper for our coats. So, if you please, we'll make a new arrangement. We'll agree never more to reckon up nine of you as necessary to make a man,—never more to speak of either goose or cabbage,—never more to use the words "prick the louse," or any thing of that kind,—in short, we'll give up the whole of this system of obloquy, and make men of you, if you will only give us a discount of five per cent. off your charges." Let the world do this; and, if the tailors be not by this time quite hardened in endurance, and impervious to all shame, I think we might all save a good deal of our incomes every year, and yet the amount of genuine mirth not be much diminished.—*Chambers' Edinburgh Journal*.

SINGULAR PROVIDENTIAL ESCAPE.

The journal of Mr. Kay, one of the Wesleyan Missionaries in South Africa, contains the following remarkable account of the deliverance of a poor sick Hottentot from the jaws of a lion. The account bears date December 2, 1839.

"About three weeks or a month ago, he (the Hottentot in question) went out on a hunting excursion, accompanied by several other natives. Arriving on an extensive plain, where there was abundance of game, they discovered a number of lions also, which appeared to be disturbed by their approach. A prodigiously large male immediately separated himself from the troop, and began slowly to advance towards the party, the majority of whom were young, and altogether unaccustomed to rencounters of so formidable a nature. When droves of timid antelopes, or springbucks only, came in their way, they made a great boast of their courage, but the very appearance of the forest's king made them tremble. While the animal was yet at a distance, they all dismounted to prepare for firing, and, according to the custom on such occasions, began tying their horses together, by means of the bridles, with the view of keeping the latter between them and the lion, as an object to attract his attention, until they were able to take deliberate aim. His movements, however, were at length too swift for them. Before the horses were properly fastened to each other, the monster made a tremendous bound or two, and suddenly pounced upon the hind parts of one of them, which, in its fright, plunged forward, and knocked down the poor man in question, who was holding the reins in his hand. His comrades instantly took flight, and ran off with all speed; and he, of course, rose as quickly as possible, in order to follow them. But, no sooner had he regained his feet, than the majestic beast, with a seeming consciousness of his superior might, stretched forth his paw, and, striking him just behind the neck, immediately brought him to the ground again. He then rolled on his back, when the lion set his foot upon his breast, and laid down upon him. The poor man now became almost breathless, partly from fear, but principally from the intolerable pressure of his terrific load. He endeavored to move a little to one side, in order to breathe; but, feeling this, the creature seized his left arm, close to the elbow; and, after once laying hold with his teeth, he continued to amuse himself with the limb for some time, biting it in sundry different places down to the hand, the thick part of which seemed to have been pierced entirely through. All this time the lion did not appear to be angry, but he merely caught at his prey, like a cat sporting with a mouse that is not quite dead; so that there was not a single bone fractured, as would, in all probability, have been the case had the creature been hungry or irritated. Whilst writhing in agony, gasping for breath, and expecting every moment to be torn limb from limb, the sufferer cried to his companions for assistance, but cried in vain. On raising his head a little, the beast opened his dreadful jaws to receive it, but providentially the hat, which I saw in its rent state, slipped off, so that the points of the teeth only just grazed the surface of the skull. The lion now set his foot upon the arm from which the blood was freely flowing; his fearful paw was soon covered therewith, and he again and again licked it clean! The idea verily makes me shudder while I write. But this was not the worst; for the animal then steadily fixed his flaming eyes upon those of the man, smelt on one side, and then on the other of his face, and, having tasted the blood, he appeared half inclined to devour his helpless victim. 'At this critical moment,' said the poor man, 'I recollected having heard that there is a God in the heavens, who is able to deliver at the very last extremity; and I began to pray that he would save me, and not allow the lion to eat my flesh, and drink my blood.' While thus engaged in calling upon God, the beast turned himself completely round. On perceiving this, the Hottentot made an effort to get from under him; but no sooner did the creature observe his movement, than he laid terrible hold of his right thigh. This wound was dreadfully deep, and evidently occasioned the sufferer most excruciating pain. He again sent up his cry to God for help; nor were his prayers in vain. The huge animal soon afterwards quietly relinquished his prey, though he had not been in the least interrupted. Having deliberately risen from his seat, he walked majestically off, to the distance of thirty or forty paces, and then laid down in the grass, as if for the purpose of watching the man. The latter, being happily relieved of his load, ventured to sit up, which circumstance immediately attracted the lion's attention; nevertheless, it did not induce another attack, as the poor fellow naturally expected; but, as if bereft of power, and unable to do any thing more, he again arose, took his departure, and was seen no more. The man, seeing this, took up his gun, and hastened away to his terrified companions, who had given him up for dead. Being in a state of extreme exhaustion, from loss of blood, he was immediately set upon his horse and brought, as soon as was practicable, to the place

where I found him. Dr. Gaultier, who, on hearing of the case, hastened to his relief, and has very humanely rendered him all necessary attention ever since, informs me that, on his arrival, the appearance of the wounds was truly alarming, and amputation of the arm seemed absolutely necessary. To this, however, the patient was not willing to consent, having a number of young children whose subsistence depends upon his labor. 'As the Almighty had delivered me,' said he, 'from that horrid death, I thought surely he is able to save my arm also.' And, astonishing to relate, several of his wounds are already healed, and there is now hope of his complete recovery."

THE DUTCH SHIPMASTER AND THE RUSSIAN COTTAGER.

The following interesting anecdote occurs in a German work, lately published, entitled *A Picture of St. Petersburg*.

In a little town, five miles from St. Petersburg, lived a poor German woman. A small cottage was her only possession, and the visits of a few shipmasters, on their way to Petersburg, her only livelihood. Several Dutch shipmasters having supped at her house one evening, she found, when they were gone, a sealed bag of money under the table. Some one of the company, had no doubt forgotten it, but they had sailed over to Cronstadt, and the wind being fair, there was no chance of their putting back. The good woman put the bag into her cupboard, to keep it till it should be called for. Full seven years, however, elapsed and no one claimed it; and though often tempted by opportunity, and oftener by want, to make use of the contents, the poor woman's good principles prevailed, and it remained untouched.

One evening, some shipmasters again stopped at her house for refreshment. Three of them were English, the fourth a Dutchman. Conversing on various matters, one of them asked the Dutchman, if he had ever been in that town before. "Indeed, I have," replied he, "I know the place but too well; my being here, cost me once seven hundred rubles." "How so?" "Why, in one of these wretched hovels, I once left behind me a bag of rubles." "Was the bag sealed?" asked the old woman, who was sitting in a corner of the room, and whose attention was roused by the subject. "Yes, yes, it was sealed, and with this very seal, here at my watch chain." The woman knew the seal instantly. "Well, then," said she, "by that you may recover what you have lost." "Recover it, mother! No, no, I am rather too old to expect that: the world is not quite so honest—besides it is full seven years since I lost the money;—say no more about it, it always makes me melancholy."

Meanwhile, the good woman slipped out, and presently returned with the bag. "See here," said she, "honesty is not so rare, perhaps, as you imagine;" and she threw the bag on the table.

The guests were astonished, and the owner of the bag, as may be supposed, highly delighted. He seized the bag, tore open the seal, took out one ruble, (worth 4s. 6d., English money), and laid it on the table for the hostess, thanking her civilly for the trouble she had taken. The three Englishmen were amazed and indignant at so small a reward being offered, and remonstrated warmly with him. The old woman protested she required no recompense for merely doing her duty, and begged the Dutchman to take back even his ruble. But the Englishmen insisted on seeing justice done; "The woman," said they, "has acted nobly, and ought to be rewarded." At length, the Dutchman agreed to part with one hundred rubles; they were counted out, and given to the old woman, who thus, at length, was handsomely rewarded for her honesty.

Literary Piracy.—Upon the first appearance of "Aken-side's Pleasures of Imagination"—the author's name not being prefixed—a Mr. Rolt had the impudence to go over to Dublin, publish an edition, and put his name to it. Upon the fame of this he lived several months, being entertained at the best tables, as the "ingenious Mr. Rolt." Aken-side at last detected the fraud, and vindicated his right, by publishing the poem with the real author's name.

Dr. Campbell, of St. Andrews, wrote a treatise on the authenticity of the Gospel History, and sent the manuscript to his friend and countryman, a Mr. Innes, a clergyman in England. The latter published it with his own name, and, before the imposition was discovered, obtained considerable promotion as a reward of merit.

Dr. Hugh Blair, and Mr. Ballantine, a friend of his, wrote a poem entitled "Redemption," copies of which in MS. were handed about. They were at length surprised to see a pompous edition of it in folio, dedicated to the Queen & a Dr. Dangler, as his own.

Remarkable Preservation.—Captain Chester of the whaling ship *Ann Maria*, of this place, on her late voyage round the East Cape, met with the following adventure—One of his boats having fastened to a whale, as is customary, a second boat, in which was Capt. Chester, approached and drove a second dart into the monster. In his rage and agony, the whale rushed with great rapidity through the water, when the rope attached to the harpoon caught Capt. Chester round his leg, above the ankle, and drew him overboard. At this critical moment he seized a knife, sticking in the gunwale of the boat, and thus armed, was drawn under the water. The rope soon made a turn round his body. In this situation, moving rapidly down, he first cut that part of the rope around his body, then cut the rope fastened to his leg. Being thus relieved, he rose to the top of the water and raised his hand, grasping the knife. Some distance from the boat he was discovered by the crew, who hastened to his rescue, and took him on board, almost exhausted. He was drawn down about thirty fathoms. The Captain is now well, and preparing for another voyage, nothing daunted by his adventure.—*New London Gaz*

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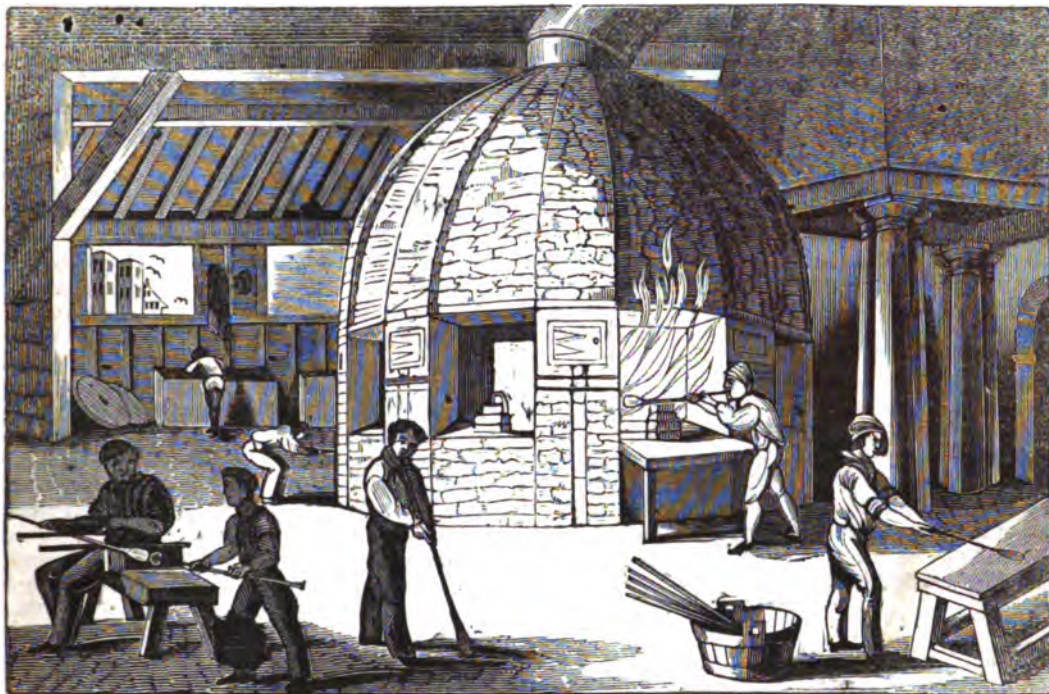
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Vol. I.



MANUFACTURE OF GLASS.

In the whole circle of our manufactures there is not any thing more curious than the one that is depicted in the above engraving. Materials which appear of themselves but little fitted for any useful purpose, are blended together so as to form compounds of a new and entirely distinct character. Indeed, an uninitiated person looking at the sand, lead, and pearl ashes, as they are prepared for the glass-house, would consider that nothing less than the wand of the enchanter could accomplish their change into a hard and crystalline body.

The ingredients usually employed in the manufacture of glass, with their relative proportions, may be thus briefly described:

120	parts of well-washed white sand
40	„ purified pearl ashes
35	„ litharge
13	„ nitre.
1	„ black oxide of manganese.

When these materials are collected and properly proportioned, they receive a certain amount of calcination prior to their being placed in the melting-pot. This operation is called *fritting*, and is performed either in small furnaces adjoining to the proper glass furnace, and heated by the same fuel, after its principal force has been expended on the glass-pots, or else in ovens constructed for the purpose. The use of this preparatory process is to discharge all moisture from the ingredients, and to drive off the carbonic gas. This operation is performed gradually, and carried to the point of semi-vitrification. When the materials are sufficiently "fritted," they are thrown with clean iron shovels, through the side opening of the furnace, into the glass-pots. the fire having been previously

raised to its greatest intensity. When filled, the opening is closed with wet clay, excepting a small hole for examining the interior of the furnace. The mass soon begins to heave, and exhibit a mass of liquid grandeur like the waves of the ocean on fire. During this process, samples for examination are frequently brought out by the aid of an iron rod, and the glass becomes beautifully clear and transparent. The glass may now be considered as completely made, but it requires some time to cool down to the requisite working temperature. It should be just soft enough to yield with ease to any external impression, even to the force of the breath, when impelled against the glowing mass, and in that state it may be bent into any required form. Such, indeed, is its tenacity, that it may be rapidly drawn into a solid string, and wound on a reel, many miles in length. Having thus brought the glass to a state fit for what is technically called "blowing," we may introduce our readers into the workshop itself, which will be best done by the aid of a graphic illustration, and the engraved view at the head of this article, will admirably answer the purpose. In the present season of the year the temperature of the blowing-house would shame the hottest portions of the torrid zone, and while we now write, we are laboring under the enervating effects of a visit, many hours back, when the thermometer stood at 140°

The workmen who are represented in the engraving, are each engaged in one of the operations essential to the manufacture of a common drinking-glass. For this purpose the operator takes a hollow tube, about four feet long, called a blowing-iron, and dipping it into the melting-pot, turns it round till a portion of the glass adheres to the surface.

He then holds it near the ground, so that the mass is extended by its own weight, and blows strongly into the tube. The breath penetrating the red-hot mass, enlarges it, and it becomes an elongated sphere of the requisite dimensions. To separate this globe from the iron tube, an assistant dips the end of a solid rod into the glass-pot, and bringing out at its extremity some of the melted glass, thrusts it immediately against the globe at the part directly opposite the neck, so that it may be firmly united. The workman then wets a small piece of iron with his mouth, and lays it on the neck of the globe, and it immediately cracks off, leaving the globe open at the neck. This is again introduced into the fire by the new bar of iron, and afterwards rounded on the rails of a sort of arm-chair. In order to detach the foot from the iron, moisture is again applied, and it drops off. There is a final process called *annealing*, which consists in raising the temperature in a separate oven, and afterwards allowing the glass to cool gradually; it is less likely to break.

Pliny attributes the invention of glass entirely to chance, and relates, that it was first made in Syria by some mariners who were driven on shore, on the banks of the river Belus; and who having occasion to make large fires on the sands, burnt the *kali* which abounded on that shore; and that the alkali of the plant uniting with a portion of the sand on which the fire stood, produced the first stream of melted glass that had ever been observed.

JOURNAL OF A TOUR FROM THE PACIFIC TO THE ATLANTIC OCEAN, THROUGH THE INTERIOR OF MEXICO, IN 1827, BY WM. R. BOWERS OF PROVIDENCE.

(Continued from the last number.)

March 12th. Having purchased two fresh mules and an extra horse, and engaged another guide, we departed. We had in company two Spanish merchants, each of whom was accompanied by two servants, and being all well armed we were enabled to muster a pretty respectable force. Our horses and mules were twenty-one in number. We left the city for Mexico and took the road leading by the *Acienos*, or farms. This is the shortest and worst road, and is only travelled by those on horseback. But a small part of the country that we passed this day, appeared to be cultivated. I noticed two fine runs of water, several well built stone bridges, and an elegant paved causeway, two miles in length. This was said to be the work of the old Spaniards. By noon we arrived at the village of Taportaness, which contains about 3000 inhabitants, and is supported by agriculture. Distance travelled, twenty-two miles.

At daylight the next day, we recommenced our journey on a road leading through a tract of country very little cultivated, although the soil appeared to be good. We travelled principally on the ascent. I noticed several settlements and small tracts of land under cultivation, and observed a rough wooden plough made by the natives, which serves for them very well. At 12, we arrived at the village of Taportlan, containing twelve or fifteen hundred inhabitants. It is supported by agriculture. Distance travelled, forty-two miles.

We departed the next day on a road leading over very extensive plains and passed occasionally fine patches of land under cultivation. This part of the country seemingly wanted water and wood. I saw large numbers of rabbits. The road we have travelled this day would do well for carriages. At

1 P. M. we arrived at the rancho called Souche gal. Distance travelled this day, forty-eight miles. This miserable rancho was kept by an old woman, who, as there was only one room in the house, had taken pains to fill that with the images of saints as large as life, neglecting every other article of utility. Here my Spanish companions had an idea, that they should pass the night more pleasantly than they before had done, being in company with such high personages, whose appearance, by the way, was any thing but interesting. The nocturnal revels of the fleas and bed-bugs, however, caused my fellow travellers to think quite differently before morning.

Before daylight, we took leave of the house of saints, wishing never more to be caught in another of the kind. We proceeded over a fine carriage road and through a clear tract of country. At 3 P. M. we arrived at the village of San Juan, or St. John, containing 150 or 200 buildings and about 3000 inhabitants, principally farmers. At the place where we stopped, we had comfortable quarters. We travelled this day, fifty-four miles.

March 16th. At daylight we continued our journey over a beautiful coach-road, principally on the ascent, and through a very handsome tract of country, deficient however in water, as we have passed only two small streams during this day's ride. I noticed several small villages.

The native women were engaged in weaving cotton with a very rough hand loom. The business appeared slow and tedious. To take the natives generally, I think them as dirty a looking set as I ever saw.

In a few hours we arrived at the town of Yxapuato containing 600 buildings and 5 or 6000 inhabitants. Here, the landlord, to recommend his intolerably dirty house, gave us to understand that a few weeks before some soldiers had been quartered there. This place being so near the celebrated mines of Guanahuatto, I think will be of some consequence. It is supported by agriculture and trade. Distance travelled this day, thirty-six miles.

The next day we proceeded over a fine coach-road and through a tract of country under good cultivation. We passed two or three small villages, and in the course of the forenoon arrived at a small town, called Salamanca, containing 3 or 4000 inhabitants. Several of the churches and convents were very handsome. Here we took breakfast, and proceeded on our way through a fine tract of country, which brought us to the town of Celegea. This place has several neat public buildings, and about 11,000 inhabitants. The town is handsomely laid out in squares, and has a handsome placca, in the middle of which is a monument erected in commemoration of their independence.

Here I observed the natives trafficking considerable quantities of cotton yarn, which appeared of very fair quality. The exterior of several of the churches, which I visited, were rich and elegant. Distance travelled this day, forty-eight miles.

At daylight we continued our journey over a dusty but commodious road, and through a beautiful tract of country. We passed several small villages. At 11 A. M. we arrived at the city of Geratera, containing several churches and convents, 1200 private buildings and between 30 and 35000 inhabitants. Geratera is situated on the side of a hill: the streets are regular and well paved, and the houses built in a good style. Like most Mexican towns, it has large tracts of land appropriated

for pleasure grounds. At a little distance from the city, is a beautiful aqueduct, leading across a deep valley. It is built on arches of massive masonry, and brings water to the city. It does credit to those who erected it.

I visited several of the first families, and found them generally polite. The young ladies, particularly, seemed desirous to give me all the information which I needed. I visited one of the convents, with a Spanish friend, who went to confess. During his period of confession, I amused myself with observing the "padres" or priests playing at the game of nine-pins, and shuffle board. They seemed to be a very jovial set of fellows, and eagerly urged me to partake in their amusement. This place is supported by agriculture and trade. Distance travelled this day, forty-eight miles.

(To be continued.)

COCOA.

The cacao is a native of South America, where it was not only used for food, but the seeds served as money. The tree is not unlike that of the cherry in form, and seldom exceeds twenty feet in height. The leaves are oblong, and pointed at the end, and when young are of a pale red. The flowers, which generally spring from the wood of the large branches of the tree, are small, and of a light red color, mixed with yellow; the pods which succeed them are oval, and are green when young, but as they ripen they become yellow or red. They are filled with a sweet, white pulp, which surrounds the many seeds contained in each of the five cells, or divisions. When travelling, the native Indians eat this pulp, and find it very refreshing. The seeds are steeped in water previous to their being sown, and lose the power of reproduction in a few days after they are taken from the pod. As the plant grows up, the shade of the coral-tree is considered so essential, that it is called by the Spaniards the *Madre del cacao*, or mother of the cocoa. When this tree is covered with its bright scarlet blossoms, it presents a splendid appearance.

It appears that there are two varieties of the cocoa in Trinidad, to which colony, and that of Grenada, the English plantations are now chiefly confined; the one variety is called the Creole cocoa, which is by far the best, but not so productive as the other sort, which has nearly superseded it, and bears the name of *Forastero*, or foreign. The former suits the Spanish market best, the latter having a somewhat bitter taste. The Creole begins to bear after about five years' growth, but does not reach perfection till the eighth year; it, however, yields good fruit for twenty years. The *Forastero* produces fruit at three years, and both, probably, come from the Spanish Main. It was formerly the practice in Trinidad to grant manumission to every slave who could at any time deliver up to his master one thousand cocoa-trees, planted by himself, in a space expressly allotted to them, in a state of bearing. Many instances of freedom obtained in this way might be cited, as the cultivation of them at any time did not infringe too much upon the daily tasks, and where nature had already provided shade and moisture, was comparatively trifling. In Grenada the plantations are beautifully situated among the mountains, and the laborers can work at all hours in the shade, but the cocoa walks are now chiefly cultivated by free colored people, most of whom are settlers from the Spanish Main.



Leaf, flower, and fruit of the Cacao, with a pod opened.

The seeds of the cocoa-tree are gathered twice every year, but the largest crop is yielded in the month of December; the other is ready in June. When picked, and extracted from the pods, they are placed in heaps, on platforms of clay, where they are suffered to ferment for forty-eight hours or more; they are then dried in the sun, exactly imitating the process used with coffee. When required for use, they are roasted till the husks may be readily taken off; and if to be converted into chocolate, they are bruised and worked with the hand into a paste, which is afterwards made still finer by a smooth iron. This is afterwards flavored with various ingredients, the principal of which are cinnamon and vanilla; the latter is a climbing plant, indigenous to Trinidad, and bears long slender pods. A great consumption of chocolate takes place in Spain, where it is considered as a necessary of life. In France it is also much used, and is fashioned into an endless variety of forms.

When the seeds are to be made into cocoa they are ground to a fine powder. The husks, boiled in milk, make a thin and delicious beverage, and are in great request in France, for delicate persons who find the paste or powder too rich for them.

ADVENTURES IN INDIA

The following extract is from a work recently published in England, with the title of "Pen and Pencil Sketches; being the Journal of a Tour in India. By Captain Mundy." Some peculiarities of style will be obvious in the captain's narrative; but few can object to his hilarity and buoyancy of spirit:—

"I retired to my tent this evening pretty well knocked up; and during the night had an adventure, which might have terminated with more loss to myself, had I slept sounder. My bed, a low charpoy, on 'four feet,' was in one corner of the tent,

close to a door, and I woke several times from a feverish doze, fancying I heard something moving in my tent; but could not discover any thing, though a cherang, or little Indian lamp, was burning on the table. I therefore again wooed the balmy power, and slept. At length, just as 'the iron tongue of midnight had told twelve' (for I had looked at my watch five minutes before, and replaced it under my pillow,) I was awakened by a rustling sound under my head; and, half opening my eyes, without changing my position, I saw a hideous black face within a foot of mine, and the owner of this index of a cut-throat, or, at least, cut-purse disposition, kneeling on the carpet, with one hand under my pillow, and the other grasping—not a dagger!—but the door-post. Still without moving my body, and with half-closed eyes, I gently stole my right hand to a boar-spear, which at night was always placed between my bed and the wall; and as soon as I had clutched it, made a rapid and violent movement, in order to wrench it from its place, and try the virtue of its point upon the intruder's body—but I wrenched in vain. Fortunately for the robber, my bearer, in placing the weapon in its usual recess, had forced the point into the top of the tent and the butt into the ground so firmly, that I failed to extract it at the first effort; and my visiter, alarmed by the movement, started upon his feet and rushed through the door. I had time to see that he was perfectly naked, with the exception of a black blanket twisted round his loins, and that he had already stowed away in his cloth my candlesticks and my dressing-case, which latter contained letters, keys, money, and other valuables. I had also leisure, in that brief space, to judge, from the size of the arm extended to my bed, that the bearer was more formed for activity than strength; and, by his grizzled beard, that he was rather old than young. I, therefore, sprang from my bed, and darting through the purdar of the inner door, seized him by the cumberbund just as he was passing the outer entrance.* The cloth, however, being loose, gave way, and ere I could confirm my grasp, he snatched it from my hand, tearing away my thumb-nail down to the quick. In his anxiety to escape, he stumbled through the outer purdar, and the muchesteemed dressing-case fell out of his loosened zone. I was so close at his heels, that he could not recover it; and jumping over the tent-ropes—which, doubtless, the rogue calculated would trip me up—he ran towards the road. I was in such a fury, that, forgetting my bare feet, I gave chase, vociferating lustily, "Choor! choor!" (thief! thief!) but was soon brought up by some sharp stones, just in time to see my rascal, by the faint light of the moon through the thick foliage over head, jump upon a horse standing unheld near the road, and dash down the path at full speed, his black blanket flying in the wind. What would I have given for my double-barrelled Joe at that moment! As he and his steed went clattering along the rocky forest road, I thought of the black huntsman of the Hartz, or the erl-king! Returning to my tent, I solaced myself by abusing my servants, who were just rubbing their eyes and stirring themselves, and by threatening the terrified sepoy sentry with a court-martial. My trunks at night were always placed outside the tent, under the sentry's eye; the robber, therefore, must have made his entry on the opposite side, and

he must have been an adept in his vocation, as four or five servants were sleeping between the khanauts. The poor devil did not get much booty for his trouble, having only secured a razor, a pot of pomatum (which will serve to lubricate his person for his next exploit,*) and the candlesticks, which on closer inspection, will prove to him the truth of the axiom, that 'all is not gold that glitters,' nor even silver. *** The next morning, on relating my adventure, I was told that I was fortunate in having escaped cold steel; and many comfortable instances were recited, of the robbed being stabbed in attempting to secure the robber."

NECESSITY AND INVENTION.

A curious catalogue might be made of the shifts to which ingenious students in different departments of art have resorted, when, like Davy, they have wanted the proper instruments for carrying on their inquiries or experiments. His is not the first case in which the stores of an apothecary's shop are recorded to have fed the enthusiasm, and materially assisted the labors, of the young cultivator of natural science. The German chemist, Scheele, whose name ranks in his own department with the greatest of his time, was, as well as Davy, apprenticed in early life to an apothecary. While living in his master's house he used secretly to prosecute the study of his favorite science by employing often half the night in reading the works that treated of it, or making experiments with instruments fabricated, as Davy's were, by himself, and out of equally simple materials.

Like the young British philosopher, too, Scheele is recorded to have sometimes alarmed the whole household by his detonations—an incident which always brought down upon him the severe anger of his master, and heavy menaces, intended to deter him from ever again applying himself to such dangerous studies, which, however, he did not long regard. It was at an apothecary's house, that Boyle and his Oxford friends first held their scientific meetings, induced, as we are expressly told, by the opportunity they would thus have of obtaining drugs wherewith to make their experiments.

Newton lodged with an apothecary, while at school, in the town of Grantham; and as, even at that early age, he is known to have been ardently devoted to scientific contrivances and experiments, and to have been in the habit of converting all sorts of articles into auxiliaries in his favorite pursuits, it is not probable that the various strange preparations which filled the shelves and boxes of his landlord's shop would escape his curious examination. Although Newton's glory chiefly depends upon his discoveries in abstract and mechanical science, some of his speculations, and especially some of his writings on the subjects of light and color, show that the internal constitution of matter, and its chemical properties, had also much occupied his thoughts. Thus, too, in other departments, genius has found it sufficient materials and instruments in the humblest and most common articles, and the simplest contrivances. Fergusson observed the places of the stars by means of a thread with a few beads strung on it, and Tycho Brahe did the same thing with a pair of compasses. The self-taught American philosopher, Rittenhouse, being, when a young man, em-

* The tents in India have double flaps; the outer khanaut, or wall, forming a verandah, of some four feet wide, round the interior pavilion.

* Indian thieves oil their naked bodies to render their seizure difficult.

ployed as an agricultural laborer, used to draw geometrical diagrams on his plough, and study them as he turned up the furrow. Pascal, when a mere boy, made himself master of many of the elementary propositions of geometry, without the assistance of any master, by tracing the figures on the floor of his room with a bit of coal. This, or a stick burned at the end, has often been the young painter's first pencil, while the smoothest and whitest wall he could find supplied the place of a canvass. Such, for example, were the commencing essays of the early Tuscan artist, Andrea del Castagno, who employed his leisure in this manner when he was a little boy tending cattle, till his performances at last attracted the notice of one of the Medici family, who placed him under a proper master. The famous Salvator Rosa first displayed his genius for design in the same manner. To these instances may be added that of the late English musical composer, Mr. John Davy, who is said, when only six years old, to have begun the study and practice of his art by imitating the chimes of a neighboring church with eight horse-shoes, which he suspended by strings from the ceiling of a room in such a manner as to form an octave.—*The Pursuit of Knowledge.*

FASCINATION OF SERPENTS.

There is a very general opinion, which has been adopted even by some eminent naturalists, that several species of serpents possess the power of fascinating birds and small quadrupeds, by fixing their eyes upon the animal, so that the poor victim is unable to escape from his formidable enemy. Dr. Barton, of Philadelphia, published, in 1796, a 'Memoir concerning the fascinating faculty which has been ascribed to the Rattle-snake, and other American Serpents,' in which he maintains that this supposed power of fascination does not exist, and offers some ingenious explanations of the origin of what he considers a popular mistake. Our readers will, we think, be interested by an extract or two from this work:—

"In conducting my inquiries into this curious subject I endeavored to ascertain the two following points, viz. first, what species of birds are most frequently observed to be enchanted by the serpents? and, secondly, at what season of the year has any particular species been the most commonly under this wonderful influence? I supposed this would furnish me with a clue to a right explanation of the whole mystery.

"Birds have an almost uniform and determinate method of building their nests, whether we consider the form of the nest, its materials, or the place in which it is fixed. Those birds which build their nests upon the ground, on the lower branches of trees, and on low bushes (especially on the sides of rivers, creeks, &c. that are frequented by different kinds of serpents,) have most frequently been observed to be under the enchanting faculty of the rattle-snake, &c. Indeed, the bewitching spirit of these serpents seems to be almost entirely limited to these kinds of birds. Hence we so frequently hear tales of the fascination of our cat-bird, which builds its nest in the low bushes, on the sides of creeks, and other waters, the most usual haunts of the black snake and other serpents. Hence, too, upon opening the stomachs of some of our serpents, if we often find that they contain birds, it is almost entirely those birds which build in the manner I have just mentioned



Red-winged Maize-thief and Black Snake.

"The rattle-snake seldom, if ever, climbs up a tree. He is frequently, however, found about their roots, especially in wet situations. It is said that it is often seen, curled round a tree, darting terrible glances at a squirrel, which after some time is so much influenced by these glances, or by some subtle emanation from the body of the serpent, that the poor animal falls into the jaws of its enemy. Is the animal's fear and distress a matter of any wonder? Nature has taught different animals what animals are their enemies; and as the rattle-snake occasionally devours birds and squirrels, to these animals he must necessarily be an object of fear. Sometimes the squirrel drives away the serpent, but occasionally approaching too near his enemy, he is bitten or immediately devoured. These hostilities, however, are not common.

"In almost every instance I have found that the supposed fascinating faculty of the serpent was exerted upon the birds at the particular season of their laying their eggs, or of their hatching, or of their rearing their young, still tender and defenceless. I now began to suspect, that the cries and fears of birds supposed to be fascinated originated in an endeavor to protect their nest or young. My inquiries have convinced me that this is the case.

"I have already observed, that the rattle-snake does not climb up trees; but the black snake and some other species of the coluber do. When impelled by hunger and incapable of satisfying it by the capture of animals on the ground, they begin to glide up trees or bushes upon which a bird has its nest. The bird is not ignorant of the serpent's object. She leaves her nest, whether it contains eggs or young ones, and endeavors to oppose the reptile's progress. In doing this, she is actuated by the strength of her instinctive attachment to her eggs, or of affection to her young. Her cry is melancholy, her motions are tremulous. She exposes herself to the most imminent danger. Sometimes she approaches so near the reptile that he seizes her as his prey. But this is far from being universally the case. Often she compels the serpent to leave the tree, and then returns to her nest.

"It is a well-known fact, that, among some species of birds, the female, at a certain period, is

accustomed to compel the young ones to leave the nest; that is, when the young have acquired so much strength that they are no longer entitled to all her care. But they still claim some of her care. Their flights are awkward, and soon broken by fatigue: they fall to the ground, when they are frequently exposed to the attacks of the serpent, which attempts to devour them. In this situation of affairs, the mother will place herself upon a branch of a tree, or bush, in the vicinity of the serpent. She will dart upon the serpent, in order to prevent the destruction of her young; but fear, the instinct of self-preservation, will compel her to retire. She leaves the serpent, however, but for a short time, and then returns again. Oftentimes she prevents the destruction of her young, attacking the snake with her wing, her beak, or her claws. Should the reptile succeed in capturing the young, the mother is exposed to less danger. For, whilst engaged in swallowing them, he has neither inclination nor power to seize upon the old one. But the appetite of the serpent tribe is great: the capacity of their stomachs is not less so. The danger of the mother is at hand when the young are devoured: the snake seizes upon her; and this is the catastrophe which crowns the tale of fascination!

"Some years since, Mr. Rittenhouse, an accurate observer, was induced to suppose, from the peculiar melancholy cry of a *red-winged maize-thief*, that a snake was at no great distance from it, and that the bird was in distress. He threw a stone at the place from which the cry proceeded, which had the effect of driving the bird away. The poor animal, however, immediately returned to the same spot. Mr. Rittenhouse now went to the place where the bird alighted, and, to his great astonishment, he found it perched upon the back of a large black snake, which it was pecking with its beak. At this very time the serpent was in the act of swallowing a young bird, and from the enlarged size of the reptile's belly it was evident that it had already swallowed two or three other young birds. After the snake was killed the old bird flew away. Mr. R. says, that the cry and actions of this bird had been precisely similar to those of a bird which is said to be under the influence of a serpent. The maize-thief builds its nest in low bushes, the bottoms of which are the usual haunts of the black snake. The reptile found no difficulty in gliding up to the nest, from which most probably, in the absence of the mother, it had taken the young ones; or it had seized the young ones after they had been forced from the nest by the mother. In either case the mother had come to prevent them from being devoured."

DUELS.

Duelling in England was carried to its greatest possible excess in the reigns of James I. and of the two Charleses. In the reign of the latter Charles, the seconds always fought as well as their principals; and as they were chosen for their courage and adroitness, their combats were generally the most fatal. Lord Howard, of Carlisle, in the reign of Charles II., gave a grand *fête champêtre* at Spring Gardens, near the village of Charing, the Vauxhall of that day. This *fête* was to facilitate an intrigue between lord Howard and the profligate dutchess of Shrewsbury: but the gay and insinuating Sidney flirted with the dutchess, abstracted her attention from Howard, and ridiculed the *fête*. The next

day his lordship sent a challenge to Sidney, who chose as his second a tall, furious, adroit swordsman, named Dillon; Howard selected a young gentleman, named Rawlings, just come into possession of an estate of 10,000*l.* a year. Sidney was wounded in two or three places, whilst his second was run through the heart, and left dead on the field. The duke of Shrewsbury became afterwards so irritated as to challenge the infamous Buckingham for intriguing with his wife. The dutchess of Shrewsbury, in the disguise of a page, attended Buckingham to the field, and held his horse whilst he fought and killed her husband. The profligate king, in spite of every remonstrance from the queen, received the duke of Buckingham with open arms, after this brutal murder.

In 172 duels fought during the last sixty years, 69 persons were killed; (in three of these duels, neither of the combatants survived;) 96 persons were wounded, 48 desperately and 48 slightly; and 188 escaped unhurt. Thus, rather more than one-fifth lost their lives, and nearly one-half received the bullets of their antagonists. It appears also, that out of this number of duels, eighteen trials took place; six of the arraigned were acquitted, seven found guilty of man-slaughter, and three of murder; two were executed, and eight imprisoned for different periods.

About forty years ago, there was a duelling society held in Charleston, South Carolina, where each "gentleman" took precedence according to the numbers he had killed or wounded in duels. The president and deputy had killed many. It happened that an old weather-beaten lieutenant of the English navy arrived at Charleston, to see after some property which had devolved upon him, in right of a Charleston lady, whom he had married; and on going into a coffee house, engaged in conversation with a native, whose insults against England were resented, and the English lieutenant received a challenge. As soon as the affair was known, some gentlemen waited upon the stranger to inform him, that the man who had called him out was a duellist, a "dead shot," the president of the duellist club; they added, that the society and all its members, though among the wealthiest people of the place, were considered so infamous by really respectable persons, that he would not be held in disesteem by not meeting the challenger. The lieutenant replied, that he was not afraid of any duellist; he had accepted the challenge, and would meet his man. They accordingly did meet, and at the first fire the lieutenant mortally wounded his antagonist. In great agony, and conscience-stricken, he invoked the aid of several divines, and calling the "duellist society" to his bedside, lectured them upon the atrocity of their conduct, and begged, as his dying request, that the club might be broken up. The death of this individual suppressed a society which the sense of the community did not possess sufficient influence to subdue.

In Virginia, a Mr. Powell, a notorious duellist, purposely met and insulted an English traveller, for having said, that "the Virginians were of no use to the American Union, it requiring one half of the Virginians to keep the other half in order;" the newspapers took it up as a national quarrel, and anticipated the meeting, without the interference of the magistracy to prevent its taking place. The Englishman, therefore, got an American duellist as his second, went into training and practice, and met his adversary amidst a mob of many thousands

to witness the fight. Mr. Powell was killed on the first shot, and the Englishman remained unhurt.

The brother of general Delancey, English barrack-master general, having high words with a "gentleman" in a coffee-house at New-York, the American immediately called for pistols, and insisted upon fighting in the public coffee-room, across one of the tables. None of the "gentlemen" present interfered; they fought across the table, and the American's shot taking effect, the Englishman was killed upon the spot. Lately, at Nashville, a gentleman was shot dead before his own door, in a duel, in the principal square of the city.

In 1763, the secretary of the English treasury, Mr. Martin, notoriously trained himself as a duellist, for the avowed purpose of shooting Mr. Wilkes, whom he first insulted in the House of Commons, and afterwards wounded in the park. This gave rise to Churchill's poem of "The Duellist;" the House of Commons ordered his majesty's sergeant surgeon to attend Mr. Wilkes, and Mr. Martin was considered to "have done the state some service."

At that period duels were frequent among clergymen. In 1764, the Rev. Mr. Hill was killed in a duel by cornet Gardener, of the carabineer. The Reverend Mr. Bate fought two duels, and was subsequently created a baronet, and preferred to a deanery after he had fought another duel. The Reverend Mr. Allen killed a Mr. Delany in a duel, in Hyde Park, without incurring any ecclesiastical censure, though judge Buller, on account of his extremely bad conduct, strongly charged his guilt upon the jury.

In 1765, occurred a celebrated duel between the father of the late lord Byron and Mr. Chaworth, a famous duellist. They quarrelled at a club-dinner at the Star and Garter, Pall Mall, about game; Chaworth was a great game preserver, and lord Byron had argued upon the cruelty and impolicy of the game laws. They agreed to fight in an adjoining room, by the light of only one candle. Lord Byron entered first; and, as Chaworth was shutting the door, turning his head round, he beheld lord Byron's sword half undrawn; he immediately whipped his own weapon out, and making a lunge at his lordship, ran it through his waistcoat, conceiving that his sword had gone through his body: lord Byron closed, and, shortening his sword, stabbed Mr. Chaworth in the belly. The challenge had proceeded from Chaworth. Lord Byron read his defence to the House of Lords, and was found guilty of manslaughter; and, upon the privilege of his peerage, was discharged on paying his fees.

In 1772, a Mr. M'Lean was challenged and killed by a Mr. Cameron; and the mother of Mr. M'Lean, on hearing of the shocking event, instantly lost her senses, whilst a Miss M'Leod, who was to have been married to the deceased, was seized with fits, and died in three days.

In Mr. Sheridan's duel with Mr. Mathews, the parties cut and slashed at each other, *à la mode de théâtre*, until Mr. Mathews left a part of his sword sticking in Mr. Sheridan's ear.

In a famous duel in which Mr. Riddell was killed, and Mr. Cunningham very severely wounded, the challenge, by mistake, had fallen in the first instance into the hands of sir James Riddell, father to Mr Riddell, who, on having it delivered to him, did no more than provide surgeons for the event.

In 1789, colonel Lennox conceived himself to

have been insulted by the late duke of York having told him, before all the officers on the parade of St. James's, "that he desired to derive no protection from his rank of prince." The colonel accordingly fought his royal highness, it was said, with cork bullets; but be that as it may, he contrived to disturb one of the huge rows of curls which it was then the fashion to wear on the side of the head.

In 1790, a captain Macrae fought and killed sir George Ramsay, for refusing to dismiss a faithful old servant who had insulted captain Macrae. Sir George urged, that even if the servant were guilty, he had been sufficiently punished by the cruel beating that captain Macrae had given him. As soon as the servant heard that his master had been killed on his account, he fell into strong convulsions, and died in a few hours. Captain Macrae fled, and was outlawed.

In 1797, colonel Fitzgerald, a married man, eloped from Windsor with his cousin, the daughter of lord Kingston. Colonel King, the brother, fought colonel Fitzgerald in Hyde Park. They fired six shots each without effect; and the powder being exhausted, colonel King called his opponent "a villain," and they resolved to fight again next day. They were, however, put under an arrest, when colonel Fitzgerald had the audacity to follow lord Kingston's family to Ireland, to obtain the object of his seduction from her parents. Colonel King hearing of this, repaired to the inn where colonel Fitzgerald put up. Colonel Fitzgerald had locked himself in his room, and refused admission to colonel King, who broke open the door, and running to a case of pistols, seized one, and desired colonel Fitzgerald to take the other. The parties grappled, and were fighting, when lord Kingston entered the room; and perceiving, from the position of the parties, that his son must lose his life, instantly shot Fitzgerald dead on the spot.

In 1803, a very singular duel took place in Hyde Park, London, between a lieutenant W. of the navy, and a captain I., of the army. Captain I. had seduced the lieutenant's sister. Lieutenant W. seemed impressed with a deep sense of melancholy: he insisted that the distance should be only six paces. At this distance they fired, and the shot of captain I. struck the guard of lieutenant W.'s pistol, and tore off two fingers of his right hand. The lieutenant deliberately wrapped his handkerchief round the wound, and looking solemnly to heaven, exclaimed, "I have a left hand, which never failed me." They again took their ground. Lieutenant W. looked steadfastly at captain I., and casting his eyes up to heaven, was heard to utter "forgive me." They fired, and both fell. Captain I. received the ball in his head, and died instantly: the lieutenant was shot through the breast. He inquired if captain I.'s wound was mortal. Being answered in the affirmative, he thanked heaven that he had lived so long. He then took his mourning ring off his finger, and said to his second, "Give this to my sister, and tell her it is the happiest moment I ever knew." He had scarcely uttered the last word, when a quantity of blood gushed from his wound, and he instantly expired.

These are practices in a *Christian* country!

Five dwelling houses and ten barns in the township of Little Britain, Lancaster Co. Pa. were prostrated and demolished by a violent tornado on the 2d inst. Much other damage was done, but no lives were lost.

DEATH OF JOHN RANDOLPH.

The Hon. John Randolph of Roanoke died at the City Hotel in Philadelphia, on Friday morning, May 25th, at a quarter past 12 o'clock. He was born on the 2nd June, 1773, and was, therefore, at the time of his death, 59 years, 11 months and 21 days old. He was a lineal descendant, in the sixth degree, from Pocahontas, the Virginian Indian princess of the seventeenth century. He preserved the singular power and brilliancy of his intellect to a very late hour. The evening before his death his physician is said to have informed him frankly of his approaching departure. The communication was received without surprise and without disappointment. The invalid spoke of his life as a protracted illness; and expressed a conviction that it was well that the scene of suffering should close. He regarded the past without reproach, and the future without apprehension. Until his mind was closed by the shade of the tomb, he presented the same intellectual elevation of character. He was emaciated to such a degree that his frame was a prodigy of leanness and general debility—a mere anatomy. He gave directions that his corpse should be transported to Roanoke, and buried under a particular tree. Mr. Randolph, it is said, has provided for the emancipation of all his slaves. He has also made provision for the support of such of them as are children, until they are able to take care of themselves—and for the aged and infirm through life. The property, left by him to his heirs, is handsome, probably amounting nearly to \$500,000 in tobacco plantations on the Roanoke, negroes, race horses, dogs, bank stock, &c.

Mr. Randolph was on his way to New York to embark for Europe, with the hope that a sea voyage would improve his health, when he was so suddenly arrested by death.

A Sea Bull.—An Irishman, who served on board a man of war in the capacity of a waiter, was selected by one of the officers to haul in a tow-line of considerable length, which was towing over the taffrail. After rowing in forty or fifty fathoms, which had put his patience severely to proof, as well as every muscle of his arms, he muttered to himself, "Sure, it's as long as to day and to-morrow! It's a good week's work for any five in the ship!—Bad luck to the arm or leg it'll leave me at last!—What! more of it yet!—Och, murder; the sea's mighty deep to be sure!"—After continuing in a similar strain, and conceiving there was little probability of the completion of his labor, he suddenly stopped short, and addressing the officer of the watch, exclaimed, "Bad manners to me, sir, if I don't think somebody's cut off the other end of it!"

Lead Mines of Missouri.—Recent valuable discoveries of lead ore have been made upon the East Bank of the Mississippi river, between the Platte and Grant rivers, in Iowa county, Missouri. The ore is said to be of the best quality, found in large bodies, and over an extensive tract of country. Among the most valuable discoveries, is a horizontal cave, the entrance of which is about 150 feet above the level of the river. It is from two to four feet wide, and from six to nine feet high. From this cave, about 400,000 pounds of lead ore have been taken, with little labor; and the operation was still continued. The land is of the best quality, and covered with timber. A town, called Van Buren, (which name has also been given to the mines and cave adjacent,) has been laid out, and that part of the country is rapidly increasing in population.

Fraud and Ingenuity of the Chinese.—An Armenian merchant brought a pearl of great size and value to Canton, in the expectation of making his fortune. Its size and beauty soon became known, and attracted the attention of the officers and the merchants, who paid their daily visits to the Armenian, offering him prices far inadequate to its value. At length, however, after minute and repeated examinations, a price was agreed upon, and a deposit made, but the Armenian was to keep possession of the pearl till the remaining part of the purchase-money should be ready; and in order to obviate any possibility of trick, the box in which it was kept was sealed with the purchaser's seal. Several days elapsed without his hearing any thing further from the Chinese; and at length the time approached when all foreign merchants are ordered down to Macao. The Armenian in vain endeavored to find out the people who had purchased his pearl; but he contented himself with the reflection that, although he had been disappointed in the main object of his journey, he still had his property, and that the deposit was more than sufficient to defray his expenses. On reaching his home he had no longer any scruple in breaking open the seal; but his mortification may easily be supposed, on discovering that his real

pearl had been exchanged for an artificial one, so very like as not to be detected but by the most critical examination. The daily visits of these people, it seems, were for no other purpose than to enable them to forge an accurate imitation, which they had dexterously substituted for the real one, when they proposed the cunning expedient of sealing the box in which it was inclosed.—This is only one proof among many of the extraordinary talent for imitating whatever may be put before them, possessed by the Chinese. The same kind of fraud, except as far as the imitation, was lately practiced on a jeweller in England.

Bunker Hill Monument.—A large meeting was held at Faneuil Hall on the 25th of May, to hear the Report of the Officers of the *Massachusetts Mechanic Association*, relative to the completion of the Bunker Hill Monument. An Address to the people of Massachusetts was reported, in which it is stated that the work of the Monument is already two-thirds completed; that the expense of raising it to the height of 220 feet, of enclosing and planting the field with trees, &c. will be \$30,000—that the Ladies Fund on interest, \$3000, and property of the Association, to be disposed of after the Monument shall be completed, will amount to \$7,500, leaving a sum of \$22,500 requisite to complete the Monument. This, added to the debt of the corporation, \$24,000, for which the land is pledged, and which it is desirable to liberate from incumbrance, makes the whole sum requisite to be raised, \$50,500.

Round Robin.—It was customary among the ancients to write names, whether of the gods, or of their friends, in a circle, that none might take offence at seeing another's name preferred to his own. The Cordeliers have formerly been known to have paid the same attention to delicacy, and when a pope has demanded the names of some priests of their order, that one might be raised to the purple, they have sent those names written circularly, that they might not seem to recommend one more than another. The race of sailors are the only people who preserve this very ancient custom in its purity, for when any remonstrance is on foot among them, they sign it in a circle, and call it a *round robin*.

VARIETIES.

The New Jersey Eagle says, that the population of Newark, which in 1830, was 11,000, is now at least 15,000—that extensive improvements are going on, the value of real estate rapidly improving, and business of every kind uncommonly active and flourishing.

Two hundred tons of ice were recently sent out to Calcutta, in the ship *Tuscany*, from Boston. The ice was stowed in the lower hold, and completely surrounded by *taw*, which is a non-conductor of heat. Should it reach Calcutta, it will doubtless command a high price.

The cholera is again on the advance. Vicksburgh, a flourishing town in the State of Mississippi, and situated on the river, has been revisited by this dreadful scourge, by which seven out of twenty cases proved fatal, between the 20th and 29th of April. Two deaths had taken place at Nashville, from the 8th to the 10th inst.

The militia of the United States, according to the returns of 1832, comprising an aggregate of 1,286,813 men. Many of the returns are imperfect. The actual number is probably not less than 1,500,000.

The emigration to Michigan is considerable. In one week 2610 emigrants arrived at Detroit.

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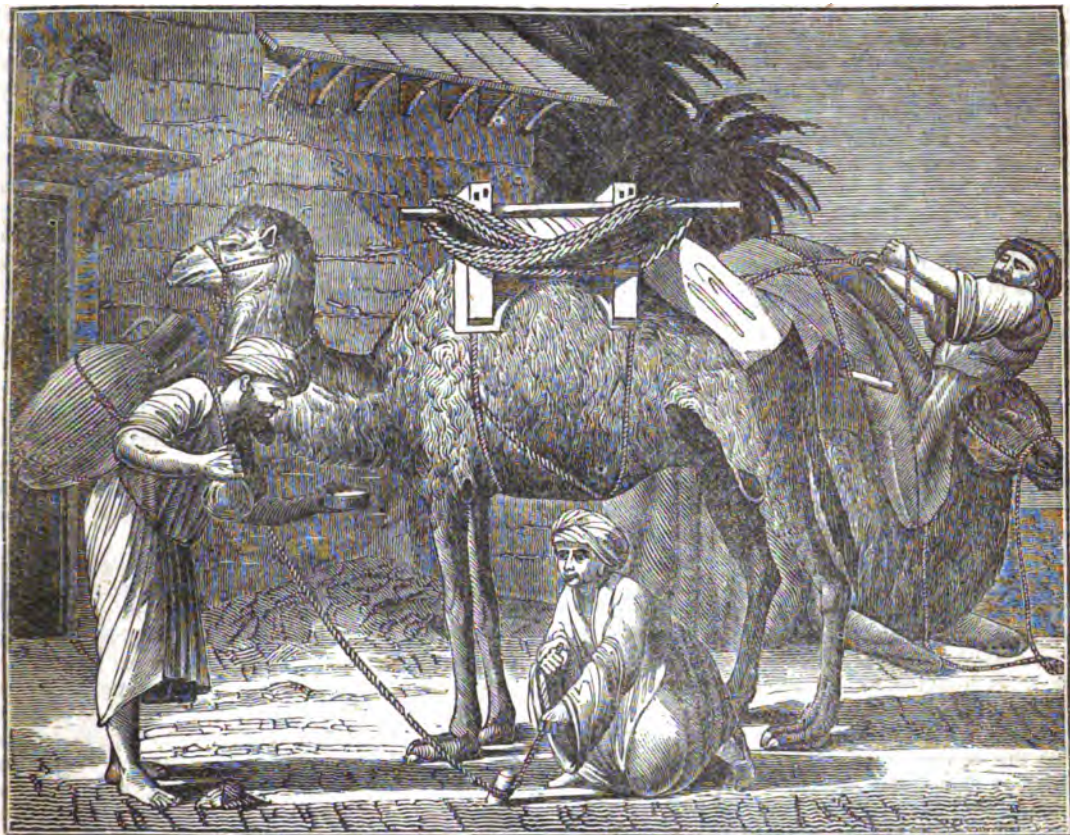
THE PEOPLE'S MAGAZINE.

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SATURDAY, JULY 13, 1833.

Vol. I.



THE ARABIAN CAMEL.

Over the arid and thirsty deserts of Asia and Africa, the camel affords to man the only means of intercourse between one country and another. The camel has been created with an especial adaptation to the regions wherein it has contributed to the comfort, and even to the very existence, of man, from the earliest ages. It is constituted to endure the severest hardships with little physical inconvenience. Its feet are formed to tread lightly upon a dry and shifting soil; its nostrils have the capacity of closing, so as to shut out the driving sand, when the whirlwind scatters it over the desert; it is provided with a peculiar apparatus for retaining water in its stomach, so that it can march from well to well without great inconvenience, although they be several hundred miles apart. And thus, when a company of eastern merchants cross from Aleppo to Bussora, over a plain of sand which offers no refreshment to the exhausted senses, the whole journey being about eight hundred miles, the camel of the heavy caravan moves cheerfully along, with a burden of six or seven hundred weight, at the rate of twenty miles a day; while those of greater speed, that carry a man, without much other load, go forward at double that pace and daily distance. Patient under his duties, he kneels down at the command of his driver, and rises up cheerfully with his load; he requires no whip or spur during his monotonous march; but, like many other ani-

mals, he feels an evident pleasure in musical sounds, and therefore, when fatigue comes upon him, the driver sings some cheering snatch of his Arabian melodies, and the delighted creature toils forward with a brisker step, till the hour of rest arrives, when he again kneels down, to have his load removed for a little while; and if the stock of food be not exhausted, he is further rewarded with a few mouthfuls of the cake of barley, which he carries for the sustenance of his master and himself. Under a burning sun, upon an arid soil, enduring great fatigue, sometimes entirely without food for days, and seldom completely slaking his thirst more than once during a progress of several hundred miles, the camel is patient, and apparently happy. He ordinarily lives to a great age, and is seldom visited by any disease.

Camels are of two species. That with one hump, which is represented with his ordinary pack-saddle in the wood-cut, is the Arabian camel, and is usually called the dromedary. The species with two humps is the Bactrian camel. The Asiatics and Africans distinguish as dromedaries those camels which are used for riding. There is no essential difference in the species, but only in the breed. The camel of the heavy caravan, the baggage camel, may be compared to the dray-horse; the dromedary to the hunter, and, in some instances to the race-horse. Messengers on dromedaries

according to Burekhardt, have gone from Daraou to Berber in eight days, while he was twenty-two days with the caravan on the same journey. Mr. Jackson, in his account of the Empire of Morocco, tells a romantic story of a swift dromedary, whose natural pace was accelerated in an extraordinary manner by the enthusiasm of his rider: "Talking with an Arab of Suse, on the subject of these fleet camels, and the desert horse, he assured me that he knew a young man who was passionately fond of a lovely girl, whom nothing would satisfy but some oranges; these were not to be procured at Mogadore, and, as the lady wanted the best fruit, nothing less than Morocco oranges would satisfy her. The Arab mounted his heirie at dawn of day, went to Morocco (about one hundred miles from Mogadore,) purchased the oranges, and returned that night after the gates were shut, but sent the oranges to the lady by a guard of one of the batteries."

The training of the camels to bear burdens, in the countries of the East, has not been minutely described by any traveller. M. Brue, who, at the latter part of the seventeenth century, had the management of the affairs of a French commercial company at Senegal, says, "soon after a camel is born, the Moors tie his feet under his belly, and having thrown a large cloth over his back, put heavy stones at each corner of the cloth, which rests on the ground. They in this manner accustom him to receive the heaviest loads." Both ancient and modern authors agree tolerably well in their accounts of the load which a camel can carry. Sandys, in his Travels, in the Holy Land, says, "six hundred weight is his ordinary load, yet will he carry a thousand." The caravans are distinguished as *light* or *heavy*, according to the load which the camels bear. The average load of the heavy, or slow-going camel, as stated by Major Rennell, who investigated their rate of travelling with great accuracy, is from 500 to 600 lbs. Burekhardt says, that his luggage and provisions weighing only two cwt., and his camel being capable of carrying six cwt., he sold him, contracting for the transport of his luggage across the desert. The camel sometimes carries large panniers, filled with heavy goods; sometimes bales are strapped on his back, fastened either with cordage made of the palm-tree, or leathern thongs; and sometimes two, or more, will bear a sort of litter, in which women and children ride with considerable ease.

The expense of maintaining these valuable creatures is remarkably little: a cake of barley, a few dates, a handful of beans, will suffice, in addition to the hard and prickly shrubs which they find in every district but the very wildest of the desert. They are particularly fond of those vegetable productions which other animals would never touch, such as plants which are like spears and daggers, in comparison with the needles of the thistle, and which often pierce the incautious traveller's boot. He might wish such thorns eradicated from the earth, if he did not behold the camel contentedly browsing upon them; for he thus learns that Providence has made nothing in vain. Their teeth are peculiarly adapted for such a diet. Differing from all other ruminating tribes, they have two strong cutting teeth in the upper jaw; and of the six grinding teeth, one on each side, in the same jaw, has a crooked form: their canine teeth, of which they have two in each jaw, are very strong; and in the lower jaw the two external cutting teeth have a

pointed form, and the foremost of the grinders is also pointed and crooked. They are thus provided with a most formidable apparatus for cutting and tearing the hardest vegetable substance. But the camel is, at the same time, organized so as to graze upon the finest herbage, and browse upon the most delicate leaves; for his upper lip being divided, he is enabled to nip off the tender shoots, and turn them into his mouth with the greatest facility. Whether the sustenance, therefore, which he finds, be of the coarsest or the softest kind, he is equally prepared to be satisfied with and to enjoy it.

JOURNAL OF A TOUR FROM THE PACIFIC TO THE ATLANTIC OCEAN, THROUGH THE INTERIOR OF MEXICO, IN 1827, BY WM. E. BOWERS OF PROVIDENCE.

(Concluded from the last number.)

March 19th. At 5 A. M. we commenced our journey over a poor and stony road and through an uninteresting tract of country. We passed several hundred mules loaded with cargoes for Geratez, and two very fine regiments of soldiers, who appeared well equipped. In the afternoon, we arrived at the village of San Juan del Rio, which has a population of 5 or 6000 inhabitants. It is situated on the border of a river called St. John, and the inhabitants are dependent on agriculture and trade, for their support. Distance travelled this day, thirty-six miles.

We commenced our journey at daylight on a road leading over very extensive plains, and through a tract of country but very little cultivated. We passed through two or three small villages, and met several carriages from Mexico, bound to Geratez. At 12 o'clock, we arrived at the village of Arroyo Zarco, a small place, hardly worth describing. Distance travelled this day, forty-two miles. Early the next day we started on our journey over an unpleasant and stony road, but through a fine tract of country. We passed several small villages and some fields under excellent cultivation, and arrived at the village Tepege del Rio, containing 100 buildings and 7 or 800 inhabitants. Distance travelled this day forty-two miles.

March 22d. At daylight, as usual, we continued our route. We travelled over a causeway, several miles in length, and noticed a beautiful aqueduct, which supplies the city of Mexico with water. We passed through several small towns, and at 2 P. M., after having my trunks ransacked by an insignificant, dark-colored officer at the gates, we entered the great metropolis of Mexico. We had travelled forty-two miles this day. The distance from Guadalupe is 465 miles and from San Blas, 735 miles: height above the sea, 9500 feet. My stay in the city of Mexico was so short, that I will not venture to give a description of the place. I confess that I was disappointed in its appearance. The flattering accounts of its situation, its floating gardens (which I could not find,) and magnificent squares, would lead a person to suppose it a second paradise. It certainly falls short of its description in the accounts of most travellers. It is true that it is a large city, containing a number of handsome streets, public and private buildings, and, I suppose, about 130,000 inhabitants.

March 24th. Having, in company with three other gentlemen, engaged a coach, with a double team of mules and four drivers, I left Mexico for Vera Cruz. Our road led, for some distance, over a causeway extending through the lake of Texcoco. The surface of this lake appeared very

ducks and waterfowl of every description, and although it is so far in the interior, the water is salt. The view of the lake of Chalco, and the different villages around, serves to make the ride quite interesting. At 6 P. M. arrived at the village of Venta Cordova, having travelled during the day 27 miles.

March 25th. Our road led to day over high and extensive hills, and through forests of fine trees. From the tops of these hills, the two famous mountains of Ilocamilco and Popocatepetl, with their peaks of eternal snow, may be seen. The heights of these mountains are estimated by Humboldt as being 18,000 feet above the level of the sea. They seemed but a few thousand feet above us. We noticed the villages of Ilocamilco, Tescmeluco, and several others of little note. In the afternoon we arrived at the village of San Marta, containing about 4000 inhabitants. It is supported by agriculture and trade. Distance travelled this day, forty-two miles. Height, 13,000 feet. The next day, our path led over a very bad road, but through a tolerably good tract of country. We stopped to dine at the city of Puebla, said to contain 100,000 inhabitants. I visited the celebrated cathedral. It is built of stone, and surpasses any piece of work of the kind, that I have ever witnessed. The public buildings that I visited were very elegant, and the private houses constructed in excellent style. The streets were laid out in squares and well paved. Taking it all in all, I consider it a most beautiful city. I noticed a large castle built on a rising ground, for the protection of the city. A small river runs through the town.

We resumed our journey over a difficult road, being obliged frequently to alight and steady the coach, with ropes made fast at the top. We passed through several small villages, the land of which seemed under good cultivation. We stopped for the night at a village called Amozorque. Distance travelled this day, forty-two miles.

March 27th. At daylight we continued our journey over a tedious road, but through a well cultivated tract of land. We passed through the towns of Acajete and Napalucan, and arrived at a house or tavern called Ofo del Agua, or in English "eye of water," there being several large springs at the foot of a high hill, which produce a river. A stream under ground is said to be the cause of these springs. Distance travelled this day, thirty-nine miles.

We commenced our journey the next day over a good carriage road, leading through a country but little cultivated. The road was principally on the descent. We passed through a tract of lava, ten or twelve miles in extent. The appearance, while passing, is novel, as the country in all directions presents to the view nothing except these large blocks of cinders. In some parts the pines have taken root, and helped to render the road more gloomy. We stopped to dine at the town of Tepilhualco, after which we arrived at the town of Perote, containing 4 or 5000 inhabitants. It is supported by agriculture and trade. Perote is situated at the foot of a very high hill, at the top of which is a large square rock, resembling a chest, which is called the "coffer of Perote." It may be seen ninety miles at sea. Here I also noticed a large castle, mounting 120 guns and built in the valley a short distance from the town. It is at present used for the confinement of state prisoners and for a military school. It appears to be a work of considerable strength, but might be easily avoid-

ed by a force marching into the interior. Distance travelled this day, forty miles.

March 29th. We proceeded early on our journey, and stopped to dine at the village of Laagivas. Not two miles from this village, are the mines of Somelahuacan, producing gold and copper. These, in time, will make this a place of some importance. The country passed through this day was somewhat dreary. The road, for twenty-five or thirty miles, consisted of a well paved causeway. We passed another large tract of lava and forests of pine trees. Early in the evening, we arrived at the gates of Xalapa, where we were obliged to unload all our baggage and undergo a strict examination, which consumed one or two hours.

Not having any thing in the smuggling line, much to the dissatisfaction of the insignificant custom-house officer, we were permitted to proceed. Distance travelled this day, thirty-six miles. The descent was 2500 feet.

Xalapa, is a handsome town, situated on a sloping hill and at considerable height from the sea, containing several hundred buildings and nearly 20,000 inhabitants. As none of the Mexicans, know any thing respecting the population, it is complete guess work to the stranger: therefore the estimate is given with the best of my judgment. Xalapa is supported by trade. This town is said to give name to the purgative root called jalap or xalap. At daylight we continued our journey over a paved causeway, and through a good tract of country. We found considerable inconvenience from the boughs of the trees, which scraped the top of the carriage. We stopped to breakfast at a village called the Plaa del Rio. At this place, there is a stream of water and two fine bridges. We proceeded over a very bad road, and at 6 o'clock arrived at Pout del Rey or "Kings bridge." Here are two well built bridges, and on the heights above, are two strong batteries, to command the pass. Distance travelled this day, thirty-six miles.

We proceeded on our journey the next day over a road leading through the remains of a causeway, which had been destroyed, in the time of the revolution. Each side was overgrown with trees, which were constantly knocking the top of the coach. The country was but little cultivated. Towards evening we arrived at the town of Santa Fé. Distance travelled this day, forty-two miles.

The tavern at which we stopped had only two rooms, and we were obliged to take up our quarters in company with some muleteers. On waking in the morning, I found that I had lost my trunk, containing my papers and clothing. On searching, I found it in an adjoining room, completely emptied of its contents: there was nothing however missing, as they lay in a confused state around the room. Not liking the looks of some of the guests, I had taken the precaution to remove my money and place it under my pillow.

April 1st. We continued our journey, being glad to bid good riddance to the miserable village of Santa Fé. Our path lay over a sandy road, on each side overgrown with wood. At noon, we arrived at the city of Vera-Cruz. Distance travelled this day ten miles. Distance from Mexico 297, and from San Blas 1032 miles.

Vera Cruz, on the Gulf of Mexico, is situated on a low sandy beach, containing a number of well built streets and buildings and about 18,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded on all sides by a strong wall, and defended at every point by massive bat-

teries, mounted with heavy artillery. The streets are well laid out at right angles, and paved. Although the city has a neat and cleanly appearance, and the atmosphere seems to be healthy, still at some seasons the black vomit and yellow fever prevail to a great extent. About two miles in front of the city, is the famous castle of St. Juan de Ulloa, built on reefs. Between these and the town is the usual place of anchorage.

On the 5th of April, I took passage in the Brig Eliza for New York, where I arrived on the 27th of the same month, it being fifty-seven days since I quitted San Blas.



THE BANANA.

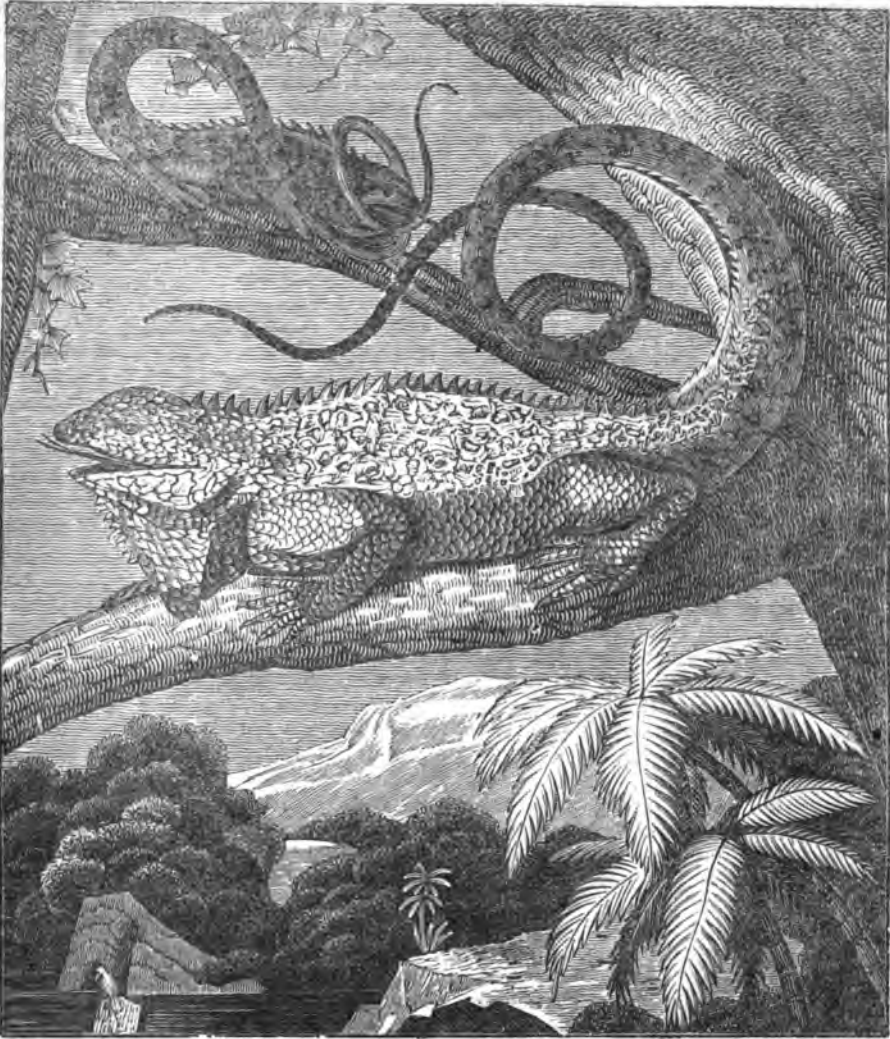
The banana and the bread-fruit are examples of extraordinary vegetable fruitfulness, with very little assistance from the care of man. The banana is not known in an uncultivated state; and those who principally depend upon the plant for subsistence propagate it by suckers. But here the labor of cultivation almost ends; and M. Humboldt has calculated that thirty-three pounds of wheat and ninety-nine pounds of potatoes require the same space as that in which four thousand pounds of bananas will grow. But the industry of the European surrounds him with a much greater amount of blessings than the almost spontaneous bounty of Nature to the Indian who lives upon his patch of bananas. The same reasoning applies to the bread-fruit; for when the produce of two or three of those trees will suffice for a man's yearly supply, he is not likely to call forth the faculties of his mind, which wait upon a constant course of assiduous labor. Those bodies of mankind are in the happiest state who are placed by climate between the extremes of natural fruitfulness and sterility. Where nature offers spontaneous food to large tribes, as in a few situations in tropical countries, their condition is nearly as wretched, taken under all its circumstances, as that of those poor inhabitants of polar regions, to whom almost every thing appears to be denied by the "All-giver," but who really obtain comforts by their persevering labor, which the idle native of the finest soil almost always wants.

BABOONS.

Lieutenant John Shipp, in the account of his amusing military adventures, describes several encounters he had with baboons near the Cape of Good Hope. "On these hills (says he,) whole regiments of baboons assemble, for which this station is particularly famous. They stand six feet high, and in features and manners approach nearer to the human species than any other quadruped I have ever seen. These rascals, who are most abominable thieves,

used to annoy us exceedingly. Our barracks were under the hills, and when we went to parade, we were invariably obliged to leave armed men for the protection of our property; and, even in spite of this, they have frequently stolen our blankets and greatcoats, or any thing else they could lay their claws on. A poor woman, a soldier's wife, had washed her blanket, and hung it out to dry, when some of these miscreants, who were ever on the watch, stole it, and ran off with it into the hills, which are high and woody. This drew upon them the indignation of the regiment, and we formed a strong party, armed with sticks and stones, to attack them, with the view of recovering the property, and inflicting such chastisement as might be a warning to them for the future. I was on the advance, with about twenty men, and I made a detour to cut them off from caverns, to which they always flew for shelter. They observed my movement, and immediately detached about fifty to guard the entrance, while the others kept their post; and we could distinctly see them collecting large stones, and other missiles. One old grey-headed one, in particular, who often paid us a visit at the barracks, and was known by the name of *Father Murphy*, was seen distributing his orders, and planning the attack, with the judgment of one of our best generals. Finding that my design was defeated, I joined the *corps de main*, and rushed on to the attack, when a scream from *Father Murphy* was a signal for a general encounter, and the host of baboons under his command rolled down enormous stones upon us, so that we were obliged to give up the contest, or some of us must inevitably have been killed. They actually followed us to our very doors, shouting, in indication of victory; and, during the whole night, we heard dreadful yells and screaming; so much so, that we expected a night attack. In the morning, however, we found that all this rioting had been created by disputes about the division of the blanket; for we saw eight or ten of them with pieces of it on their backs, as old women wear their cloaks. Amongst the number strutted *Father Murphy*. These rascals annoyed us day and night, and we dared not venture out, unless a party of five or six went together.

One morning, *Father Murphy* had the consummate impudence to walk straight into the grenadier barracks; and he was in the very act of purloining a serjeant's regimental coat, when a corporal's guard (which had just been relieved) took the liberty of stopping the gentleman at the door, and secured him. He was a most powerful brute, and, I am persuaded, too much for any single man. Notwithstanding his frequent misdemeanors, we did not like to kill the poor creature; so, having first taken the precaution of muzzling him, we determined on shaving his head and face, and then turning him loose. To this ceremony, strange to say, he submitted very quietly; and, when shaved, he was really an exceedingly good-looking fellow; and I have seen many a "blood" in Bond street not half so prepossessing in his appearance. We then started him up the hill, though he seemed rather reluctant to leave us. Some of his companions came down to meet him; but, from the alteration which shaving his head and face had made on him, they did not know him again, and, accordingly, pelted him with stones, and beat him with sticks, in so unmerciful a manner, that poor *Father Murphy* actually sought protection from his enemies, and he in time became quite domesticated and tame. There are many now alive, in his Majesty's 22d regiment, who can vouch for the truth of this anecdote."



THE GUANA.

The above is an accurate representation, taken from the drawings of the celebrated naturalist, Seba, of the Guana, one of the largest lizards of the tropics. The appearance of this animal is somewhat alarming; and, when irritated, it puts on a menacing aspect, swelling out the great pouch of its throat, erecting the scales on its back, lashing its tail, glaring with its fiery eyes, and making a sort of hissing noise like a serpent. But the animal is very gentle, though it can bite and scratch; and it may be easily domesticated. The guana is common in several countries of South America, and it was formerly found in considerable numbers in the West-India Islands; but the race has there been nearly destroyed, its flesh being considered a delicious article of food.

This remarkable lizard is easily distinguished from every other species, by the pouch which hangs from the under side of its neck, by the indented crest which reaches from the head to the extremity of the tail, and by the peculiar beauty of its general colors, and the metallic brilliancy of its scales. Its extreme length, from the muzzle to the end of the tail, is sometimes five or six feet. There is a dried specimen in the Museum of Natural History at Paris, which is four feet long; and there is a smaller specimen in the British Museum. The ground color of the guana is in general green, mixed with yellow or various shades of blue; but the colors

of the species differ considerably in different individuals, and are probably dependent upon circumstances of age, sex, and climate.

The guana feeds on the flowers and leaves of trees, and on earth-worms and insects. Its jaws are furnished with teeth, but it swallows its food with scarcely any mastication. It runs with astonishing nimbleness along the highest branches of trees; and seldom descends to the earth, sleeping and feeding on the same tree. The female, however, at a particular period of the year, goes to the sea shore to deposit her eggs in the sand. After feeding the guana is very dull, and is then easily taken.

In some places it is hunted by dogs trained to the chase, and in others taken in a noose or trap. It is extremely difficult to kill, except in one way—that of thrusting a sharp instrument up its nostrils. The flesh, as we have mentioned, is esteemed a delicacy. Catesby, in his *Natural History of Carolina*, says that the guana is made an article of traffic in the Bahama Islands, being carried from place to place, and kept alive, till required for the tables of the rich. Brown, who wrote the *Natural History of Jamaica*, says that he kept a full-grown guana in his house for two months. It lay quiet on a bed during the day, and ran about at night, when it appeared to feed on small insects floating in the air.

WATERTON'S ACCOUNT OF THE SLOTH.

The character and habits of that singular animal, the Sloth, according to Charles Waterton, the enthusiastic traveller in the wilds of South America, have been strangely misrepresented by naturalists. "This singular animal (says he) is destined by nature to be produced, to live, and to die, in the trees. He is a scarce and solitary animal, and, being good food, he is never allowed to escape. He inhabits remote and gloomy forests, where snakes take up their abode, and where cruelly-stinging ants and scorpions, and swamps, and innumerable thorny shrubs and bushes, obstruct the steps of civilized men. This, then, is the proper place to go in quest of the Sloth. We will first take a near view of him. By obtaining a knowledge of his anatomy, we will be enabled to account for his movements. His fore-legs, or, more correctly speaking, his arms, are apparently much too long, while his hind-legs are very short, and look as if they could be bent almost to the shape of a corkscrew. Both the fore and hind legs, by their form, and by the manner in which they are joined to the body, are quite incapacitated from acting in a perpendicular direction, or in supporting it on the earth, as the bodies of other quadrupeds are supported, by their legs. Hence, when you place him on the floor, his belly touches the ground. Now, granted that he supported himself on his legs like other animals, nevertheless he would be in pain, for he has no soles to his feet, and his claws are very sharp and long, and curved; so that, were his body supported by his feet, it would be by their extremities, just as your body would be, were you to throw yourself on all-fours, and try to support it on the ends of your toes and fingers. Were the floor of a polished surface, the sloth would actually be quite stationary; but as the ground is generally rough, with little protuberances upon it, such as stones, or roots of grass, this just suits the Sloth, and he moves his fore-legs in all directions, in order to find something to lay hold of; and when he has succeeded, he pulls himself forwards, and is thus enabled to travel onwards, but, at the same time, in so tardy and awkward a manner, as to acquire him the name of the Sloth. Indeed, his looks and his gestures evidently betray his uncomfortable situation; and as a sigh every now and then escapes him, we may be entitled to conclude that he is actually in pain.



"Some years ago I kept a Sloth in my room for several months. I often took him out of the house, and placed him upon the ground, in order to have an opportunity of observing his motions. If the ground were rough, he would pull himself forwards by means of his fore-legs, at a pretty good pace; and he invariably shaped his course towards the nearest tree. His favorite abode was the back of a chair; and after getting all his legs in a line upon the topmost part of it, he would hang there for hours together, and often, with a low and inward cry, would seem to invite me to take notice of him. The Sloth, in its wild state, spends its whole life in the trees, and never leaves them but through force, or by accident. An all-ruling Providence has ordered man to tread on the surface of the earth, the

eagle to soar in the expanse of the skies, and the monkey and squirrel to inhabit the trees; still these change their relative situations without feeling much inconvenience; but the Sloth is doomed to spend his whole life in the trees; and, what is more extraordinary, not upon the branches, like the squirrel and the monkey, but under them. He is as much at a loss to proceed on his journey upon a smooth and level floor, as a man would be who had to walk a mile upon a line of feather-beds. He moves suspended from the branch, he rests suspended from it, and he sleeps suspended from it. To enable him to do this, he must have a very different formation from that of any other known quadruped. Hence, his seemingly bungled conformation is at once accounted for; and in lieu of the Sloth leading a painful life, and entailing a melancholy and miserable existence on its progeny, it is but fair to surmise that it enjoys life just as much as any other animal, and that its extraordinary formation and singular habits are but farther proofs to engage us to admire the wonderful works of Omnipotence.

CHICK IN THE EGG.

The hen has scarcely sat on the egg twelve hours, when we begin already to discover in it some lineaments of the head and body of the chicken that is to be born. The heart appears to beat at the end of the day; at the end of forty-eight hours, two vesicles of blood can be distinguished, the pulsation of which is very visible. At the fiftieth hour, an auricle of the heart appears, and resembles a lace, or noose folded down upon itself. At the end of seventy hours we distinguish wings, and on the head two bubbles for the brain; one for the bill, and two others for the forepart and hindpart of the head—the liver appears towards the fifth day. At the end of one hundred and thirty-one hours, the first voluntary motion is observed. At the end of one hundred and thirty-eight hours the lungs and stomach become visible—at the end of 142, the intestines, the loins, and the upper jaw. The seventh day, the brain, which was slimy, begins to have some consistence.—At the 190th hour of incubation, the bill opens, and the flesh appears in the breast. At the 194th, the sternum is seen, that is to say, the breastbone. At the 210th, the ribs come out of the back, the bill is very visible, as well as the gall-bladder. The bill becomes green at the end of 236 hours; and if the chick is taken out of its covering, it evidently moves itself.—The feathers begin to shoot out towards the 240th hour, and the skull becomes gristly. At the 264th the eyes appear. At the 288th, the ribs are perfect. At the 331st, the spleen draws near to the stomach, and the lungs to the chest. At the end of 355 hours, the bill frequently opens and shuts; and at the end of 451 hours, or the 18th day, the first cry of the chick is already heard—it afterwards gets more strength, and grows continually, till at last it sets itself at liberty, by opening the prison in which it was shut up. Adorable wisdom of God! it is by so many different degrees that these creatures are brought into life. All these progressions are made by rule! and there is not one of them without sufficient reason. No part of its body could appear sooner or later, without the whole embryo suffering, and each of its limbs appear at the most proper moment. This ordination, so wise, and so invariable in the production of the animal, is manifestly the work of a Supreme Being.



ANIMAL ASSOCIATIONS.

All associations between animals of opposite natures are exceedingly interesting; and those who train animals for public exhibition know how attractive are such displays of the power of discipline over the strength of instinct. These extraordinary arrangements are sometimes the effect of accident, and sometimes of the greater force of one instinct over the lesser force of another. A rat-catcher having caught a brood of young rats alive gave them to his cat, who had just had her kittens taken from her to be drowned. A few days afterwards, he was surprised to find the rats in the place of the drowned kittens, being suckled by their natural enemy. The cat had a hatred to rats, but she spared these young rats to afford her the relief which she required as a mother. The rat-catcher exhibited the cat and her nurslings to considerable advantage. A somewhat similar exhibition exists at present.

There is a little Menagerie in London where such odd associations may be witnessed upon a more extensive scale, and more systematically conducted, than in any other collection of animals with which we are acquainted. Upon the Surrey side of Waterloo Bridge, or sometimes, though not so often, on the same side of Southwark Bridge, may be daily seen a cage about five feet square, containing the quadrupeds and birds which are represented in the annexed cut. The keeper of this collection, John Austin, states that he has employed seventeen years in this business of training creatures of opposite natures to live together in content and affection. And those years have not been unprofitably employed! It is not too much to believe, that many a person who has given his halfpenny to look upon this show, may have had his mind awakened to the extraordinary effects of habit and of gentle discipline, when he has thus seen the cat, the rat, the mouse, the hawk, the rabbit, the guinea-pig, the owl, the pigeon, the starling, and the sparrow, each enjoying, as far as can be enjoyed in confinement, its respective modes of life, in the company of the others,—the weak without fear, and the strong without the desire to injure. It is impossible to imagine any prettier exhibition of kindness than is here shown. The rabbit and the pigeon playfully contending for a lock of hay to make up their nests; the sparrow sometimes perched on the head of the cat, and sometimes on that of the owl,—each its natural enemy; and the mice playing about with perfect

indifference to the presence either of cat, or hawk, or owl. The modes by which this man has effected this, are, first, by keeping all the creatures well fed; and, secondly, by accustoming one species to the society of the other at a very early period of their lives. The ferocious instincts of those who prey on the weaker are never called into action; their nature is subdued to a systematic gentleness; the circumstances by which they are surrounded are favorable to the cultivation of their kindlier dispositions; all their desires and pleasures are bounded by their little cage; and though the old cat sometimes takes a stately walk on the parapet of the bridge, he duly returns to his companions, with whom he has so long been happy, without at all thinking that he was born to devour any of them. This is an example, and a powerful one, of what may be accomplished by a proper education, which rightly estimates the force of habit, and confirms, by judicious management, that habit which is most desirable to be made a rule of conduct. The principle is the same, whether it be applied to children or to brutes.

THE HAPPY LIFE.

BY SIR HENRY WOTTON.

How happy is he bred and taught,
That serveth not another's will,
Whose armor is his honest thought,
And simple truth his utmost skill.

Whose passions not his masters are,
Whose soul is still prepared for death;
Untied unto the world by care,
Of public fame, or private breath.

Who envies none that chance doth raise,
Nor vice hath ever understood;
How deepest wounds are given by praise;
Nor rules of state, but rules of good.

Who hath his life from rumors freed,
Whose conscience is his sure retreat,
Whose state can neither flatterers feed,
Nor ruin make oppressors great.

Who God doth late and early pray,
More of his grace than gifts to send;
And entertains the harmless day
With a religious book or friend.

This man is freed from servile bands,
Of hope to rise or fear to fall;
Lord of himself, though not of lands,
And having nothing, yet hath all.

A MARVELLOUS STORY.

I was bred up in the dislike of the marvellous, or the stupid wonderful, as my uncle called it. I must relate an anecdote in point. Some gentlemen were dining together, and relating their travelling adventures; one of them dealt so much in the marvellous, that it induced another to give him a lesson.

"I was once," said he, "engaged in a skirmishing party in America; I advanced too far, was separated from my friends, and saw three Indians in pursuit of me: the horrors of the tomahawk in the hands of angry savages, took possession of my mind; I considered for a moment what was to be done; most of us love life, and mine was both precious and useful to my family; I was swift of foot, and fear added to my speed. After looking back—for the country was an open one—I at length perceived that one of my enemies had outrun the others and the well-known saying of 'Divide and conquer,' occurring to me, I slackened my speed, and allowed him to come up; we engaged in mutual fury; I hope none here (bowing to his auditors) will doubt the result; in a few minutes he lay a corpse at my feet; in this short space of time, the two Indians had advanced upon me, so I took again to my heels,—not from cowardice, I can in truth declare,—but with the hope of reaching a neighboring wood, where I knew dwelt a tribe friendly to the English; this hope, however, I was forced to give up; for, on looking back, I saw one of my pursuers far before the other. I waited for him, recovering my almost exhausted breath, and soon this Indian shared the fate of the first. I had now only one enemy to deal with; but I felt fatigued, and being near the wood, I was more desirous to save my own life than to destroy another of my fellow-creatures; I plainly perceived smoke curling up amongst the trees, I redoubled my speed, I prayed to Heaven, I felt assured my prayers would be granted—but at this moment the yell of the Indian's voice sounded in my ears—I even thought I felt his warm breath—there was no choice—I turned round—"Here the gentleman, who had related the wonderful stories at first, grew impatient past his endurance; he called out, "Well, sir, and you killed him also?"—"No sir, he killed me."

Epithets.—The meaning of the word *Wretch* is one not generally understood. It was originally, and is now, in some parts of England, used as a term of the softest and fondest tenderness. This is not the only instance in which words in their present general acceptance bear a very opposite meaning to what they did in Shakspeare's time. The word *Wench*, formerly, was not used in that low and vulgar acceptance that it is at present. *Damsel* was the appellation of young ladies of quality, and *Dame* a title of distinction. *Knave* once signified a servant; and in an early translation of the New Testament, instead of "Paul the Servant," we read "Paul the Knave of Jesus Christ," "On the other hand, the word *Companion*, instead of being the honorable synonyme of *Associate*, occurs in the play of *Othello*, with the same contemptuous meaning which we now affix, in its abusive sense, to the word "Fellow;" for Emilia, perceiving that some secret villain had aspersed the character of the virtuous Desdemona, thus indignantly exclaims:—

O Heaven! that such *Companions* thou'dst unfold.
And put in every honest hand a whip,
To lash the rascal through the world.

From the Cincinnati Register.

Things that I have seen.—I have seen the time when the only boat that floated on the surface of the Ohio, was a canoe, propelled by poles used by two persons, one in the bow and the other in the stern.

I have seen the day when the introduction of the keel boat, with a shingle roof, was hailed a mighty improvement in the business of the west.

I remember the day when the arrival of a Canadian barge (as the St. Louis boats were called at the head of the Ohio) was an important event in the transaction of a year.

I remember the day when a passage of four months from Natchez to Pittsburgh, was called a speedy trip for the best craft on the river, and when the boatmen, a race now extinct, leaped on shore after the voyage, and exhibited an air of as much triumph as did the sailors of Columbus on their return from the new world.

I remember the time when the canoe of a white man dared not be launched on the bosom of the Alleghany.

I remember the time when a trader to New Orleans was viewed as the most enterprising amongst even the most hardy sons of the west; on his return from his six months trip, he was hailed as a traveller who had seen the world.

I remember the day when the borders of the Ohio were a wilderness, and New Orleans was "toto orbe divisa," literally "off from the whole world."

I have lived to see the day when the desert is flourishing as the rose—when the race of boatmen has become extinct, and their memories only preserved in the traditional tales of our borderers.

I have lived to see two splendid cities, one devoted to manufactures, the other to commerce, spring up, where in my boyhood, nothing appeared like civilisation but the hut of the soldier or of the settler.

I have lived to see a revolution produced by a mechanical philosophy, equal to that effected by the art of printing. It has changed the character of western commerce and almost proved that the poetical wish of "annihilating time and space," was not altogether hyperbolic. By it New Orleans and Pittsburgh have become near neighbors.

I have lived to see the day, when a visit to New Orleans from Cincinnati, requires no more preparation than a visit to a neighboring country town. I remember when it required as much previous arrangement as a voyage to Calcutta.

I have lived to see vessels of 300 tons arriving in twelve or fifteen days from New Orleans at Cincinnati; and I calculate upon living to see them arrive in ten days.

I have lived to see vessels composing an amount of tonnage of upwards of 4,000 tons, arrive in one week at the harbor of Cincinnati.

All these things I have seen, and yet I feel myself entitled to be numbered amongst the young sons of the West.

VARIETIES.

The Indian chief Black Hawk, with his son and the Prophet, left New York on the 22d of June for Albany, on their way to Detroit. They have visited some of the principal cities of the Union, and will doubtless carry back with them to their tribe an impression, which will prevent any future misunderstanding with the whites.

The New Orleans Bulletin gives an account of the destruction of the steamboat *Lioness* by fire, on the 19th May, on her passage to Natchitoches, about forty miles above Alexandria. The boat was blown up by gunpowder. The manner in which fire was communicated to the hold is not known. Fifteen or sixteen persons lost their lives—among them the Hon. Josiah S. Johnson, U. S. Senator of Louisiana; B. Q. Biggs and Michael Boyce, Esq. of Alexandria; Mr. Michael Clifford of New Orleans; and Mr. H. Hertz of Texas.

Prince Czartoryski, a Polish exile in London, is reported to have once had an income of £70,000 per annum, all of which he lost in defence of his country—his wife died of grief, and his children had been shot one by one in battle.

Papers from the west and southwest, are all occupied with notices of that wide spreading and fatal malady, the cholera, which seems to exist almost in every direction west of the Alleghanies.

The cholera has again made its appearance at New Orleans as an epidemic, and is carrying off a great many. It is said to be full as fatal as it was last autumn. Persons after they are attacked do not live generally more than eight hours, and some die in two.

The remains of those, who perished in the massacre at Wyoming have been recently discovered. The grave was found "by Susquehanna's side," on the present site of New Troy, at a little distance above Wilkesbarre. Subscriptions to a considerable amount have been already collected to erect a monument upon the spot.

A company has been established at Natchez, Mississippi, for the manufacture of the oil of cotton seed, and have erected suitable machinery, by which they are enabled to prepare from one to two thousand gallons a day.

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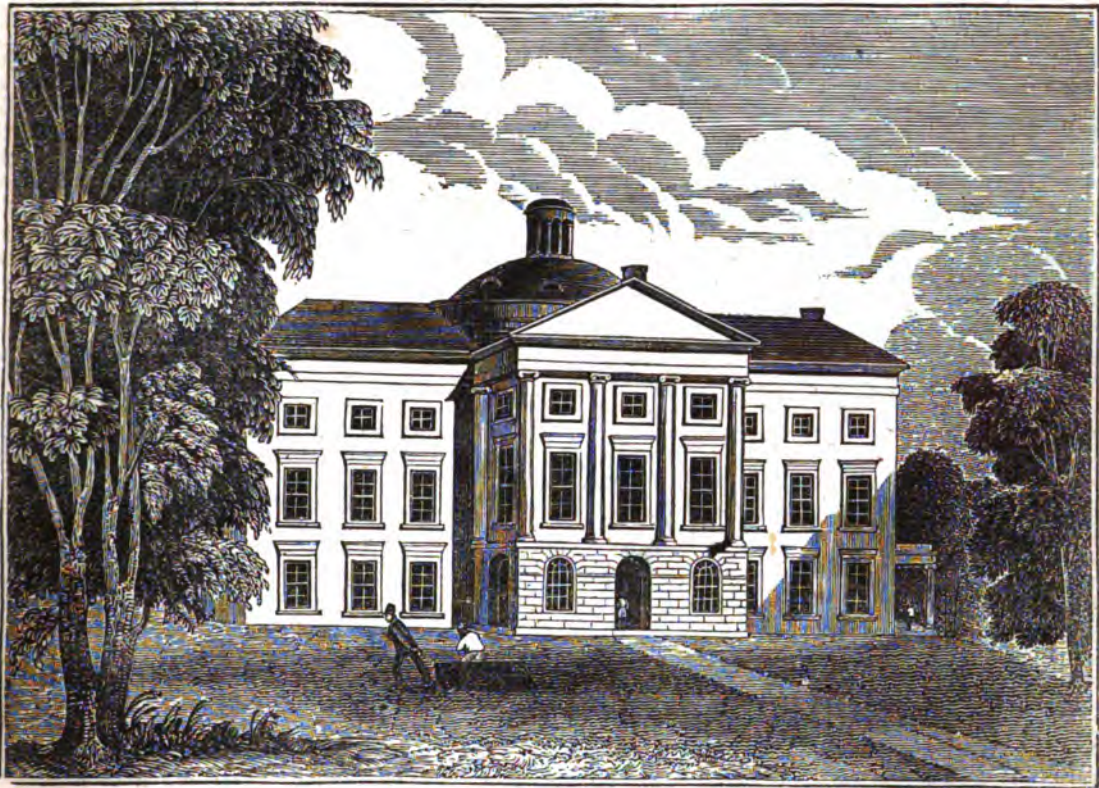
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SATURDAY, JULY 27, 1833.

VOL. I.



CAPITOL AT RALEIGH, N. C.

The engraving which we here represent to our readers is a view of the Capitol at Raleigh, which was destroyed by fire on the 21st of June, 1831. Canova's beautiful statue of Washington was also much mutilated in the conflagration, although it has since been partially restored by Mr. Hughes, the sculptor. We find the following notice of Raleigh in a letter dated April, 1830.

"Raleigh is a pretty village; its principal street ornamented with trees, with the State House at one end, and the Governor's house at the other. The State House is a handsome building. It was once plain and square, but when they had procured a statue of Washington, they determined to have a building fit to receive it, and the State House was enlarged and altered accordingly. The statue is placed in a small saloon, in the centre of the building, and is visible on entering, in each direction. This saloon is a very neat one, with pilasters and a panelled ceiling, and rises through both stories of the house. On one side of it, on the second story, is the House of Commons; on the other, the Senate Chamber. The former has a very strong resemblance to the Representatives' Chamber at Washington. It is, compared in size with that vast hall, of course, but a small room. On the other side of the house, is the Senate Chamber, a very beautiful circular room—the seats being arranged in circles for sixty-two members, if I remember right. The building is altogether an honor to the state."

The destruction of this noble edifice was nearly total. The building was entirely consumed in about two hours from the period at which the alarm was given. Nothing was saved from the library, nor could any attempt for that purpose be made, by reason of the suffocating smoke which filled the room. The origin of the fire was supposed to proceed from the carelessness of a man, who had been employed to assist in soldering the roof.

The beautiful grove of oaks, of which the Capitol was the centre ornament, did more towards staying the progress of the flames than any human effort. The spectacle of the conflagration is said to have been inexpressibly awful and impressive. The vast building seemed to be in one entire blaze. The flames streaming from every window, and a vast column of fire rising from the roof, formed a scene, not easy to be described.

CHILDREN.

Not in entire forgetfulness,
And not in utter nakedness,
But trailing clouds of glory, do we come,
From God, who is our home.
Heaven lies about us in our infancy!

WORDSWORTH

I may begin with the question of Henry IV. of France, when found by an ambassador at romps with his children,—"Are you a father?" If you are, we may go on with the game—if not, you must pass to the next article. A curious thing it

is, this same fact, that children in general are only interesting in the eyes of those who are parents, while brats in particular are held as pests by all but their immediate father and mother. Some lightheaded author has compared the rush of children which takes place at the conclusion of family dinners, to the incursion of the Goths and Vandals. Perhaps it is all true, that children out of place are not agreeable; but is any thing agreeable that is out of place? Children, abstracted from the homely details of their management, and the anxiety which they always occasion, are a delightful study—a study, I maintain, fitted alike to engage the speculations of the philosophic, and the affections of the benevolent mind. I cannot, I must say, form the idea of a man of extended views and sympathies, who does not like children.

Among the grown up part of mankind, there is always abundance of envy, hatred, and all uncharitableness. This fact I consider with reference to the circumstances in which men are placed, and I plainly conceive that where existence is only to be supported by an unceasing struggle, and where self-love is so perpetually receiving injury, it is needless to expect that men should be much better than they are. In children, however, we see no possibility of any rivalry: they are a harmless little people at *this* moment, and we run no chance of being jostled by them in our course of life, for many years to come. There is, therefore, no reason for envy, hatred, or uncharitableness with them. On the contrary, in our intercourse with children, our self-love is undergoing a perpetual compliment. The appeal which they are constantly making from their own silently confessed weakness to our tacitly acknowledged strength, soothes and delights us. A fellow creature lies unconsciously abandoned to our mercy—unconsciously unable to resist. It asks for nothing, for it cannot; but it does not expect harm: there is the charm. It imputes to us none of our original sins of envy, hatred, and uncharitableness, but seems to take it for granted that we are blanch and stainless like itself. It puts forth its little arms to us, with a perfect confidence in our gentler and better nature, and we feel it impossible to be evil when we are so sincerely understood to be good. We give, then, the love and faith that are demanded, and press the offenceless type of our original and perfect nature, with all the hues and all the odors of paradise rife around it, to our heart of hearts.

SUCCESSFUL COURAGE.

The narrations of a frontier circle, as they draw round their evening fire, often turn upon the exploits of the old race of men, the heroes of the past days, who wore hunting-shirts, and settled the country. In a boundless forest full of panthers and bears, and more dreadful Indians, with not a white within a hundred miles, a solitary adventurer penetrates the deepest wilderness, and begins to make the strokes of his axe resound among the trees. The Indians find him out, ambush, and imprison him. A more acute and desperate warrior than themselves, they wish to adopt him, and add his strength to their tribe. He feigns contentment, uses the savage's insinuations, outruns him in the use of his own ways of management, but watches his opportunity, and, when their suspicion is lulled, and they fall asleep, he springs upon them, kills his keepers, and bounds away into unknown forests,

pursued by them and their dogs. He leaves them all at fault, subsists many days upon berries and roots, and finally arrives at his little clearing, and resumes his axe. In a little palisade, three or four resolute men stand a siege of hundreds of assailants, kill many of them, and mount calmly on the roof of their shelter, to pour water upon the fire which burning arrows have kindled there, and achieve the work amidst a shower of balls. A thousand instances of that stern and unshrinking courage which had shaken lands with death, of that endurance which had defied all the inventions of Indian torture, are recorded of these wonderful men. The dread of being roasted alive by the Indians called into action all their hidden energies and resources.

I will relate one case of this sort, because I knew the party, by name Baptiste Roy, a Frenchman, who solicited, and, I am sorry to say, in vain, a compensation for his bravery from Congress. It occurred at "Côte sans Dessein," on the Missouri. A numerous band of northern savages, amounting to four hundred, beset the garrison-house, into which he, his wife, and another man, had retreated. They were hunters by profession, and had powder, lead, and four rifles in the house; they immediately began to fire upon the Indians. The wife melted and moulded the lead, and assisted in loading, occasionally taking her shot with the other two. Every Indian that approached the house was sure to fall. The wife relates, that the guns would soon become too much heated to hold in the hand; water was necessary to cool them. It was, I think, on the second day of the siege that Roy's assistant was killed. He became impatient to look on the scene of execution, and see what they had done. He put his eye to the port-hole, and a well-aimed shot destroyed him. The Indians perceived that their shot had taken effect, and gave a yell of exultation. They were encouraged, by the momentary slackening of the fire, to approach the house, and fire it over the heads of Roy and his wife. He deliberately mounted the roof, knocked off the burning boards, and escaped untouched from the shower of balls. What must have been the nights of this husband and wife? After four days of unavailing siege, the Indians gave a yell, exclaimed that the house was a "grand medicine," meaning that it was charmed and impregnable, and went away. They left behind forty bodies to attest the marksmanship of the besieged, and a peck of balls collected from the logs of the house.—*Flint's Mississippi.*

GINGER.

Ginger is a native of the southeast of Asia and the adjacent isles. It was naturalized in America very soon after the discovery of that country by the Spaniards; indeed, at so early a period that it is scarcely believed to be an exotic, and is supposed to have been found indigenous in the Western World. Acosta relates that a person named Francisco de Mendoza first transplanted it from the East Indies into New Spain, where its cultivation was diligently pursued by the Spanish Americans to no small extent, as, from the testimony of the same author, 22,053 cwt. were exported thence to Europe in the year 1547.

The plant is now cultivated in great quantities in the West Indies, especially in the island of Jamaica. Ginger is imported into this country under the

form of dried roots, and as a preserve. We receive it both from the East and West Indies, but that from the latter is much superior in quality to the former.



The ginger plant has a perennial root, which creeps and increases under ground in tuberous joints, from each of which arises in the spring a green reed-like stalk of about two feet and a half in height, having narrow and lanceolate leaves. The stem is annual; the flowering stalk rises directly from the root, ending in an oblong scaly spike; from each of these scales a single white and blue flower is produced. The ginger of commerce is distinguished into black and white; but the difference of color depends wholly on the modes of preparation. For both of these kinds the tubers are allowed to be ripe, that is, the roots are taken up after the annual stalks are withered. For the black, they are scalded in boiling water and then dried in the sun; and for the white, they are scraped clean and dried carefully without being scalded. The best and soundest roots are selected for the latter process, and therefore white ginger is, independent of the manner of preparation, superior to the black, and it always bears a much higher price in the market. When a preserve is to be made of the roots, they are dug up in the sap, the stalks not being then more than five or six inches long. For this purpose the young roots are scalded, then washed in cold water and afterwards carefully peeled. This process lasts for three or four days, during which period the water is frequently changed.

When the cleansing is complete, the tubers are put into jars, and covered with weak syrup of sugar. After a day or two the weak syrup is removed, and replaced by a stronger; and the shifting is two or three times repeated, increasing the strength of the syrup each time. The preserve thus formed is one of the finest that is made; and the removed syrups are not lost, but fermented into a pleasant liquor, which gets the name of "cool drink."

The manner of cultivating ginger is extremely simple, requiring little skill or care; it is propagated with as much ease and nearly in the same manner as potatoes are in this country.

STUDY.

While some are lost in dissipation and thoughtlessness, there are others whose minds are absorbed in diligent and laborious study. And, indeed, he

who has no taste for intellectual pleasures, seems to be but a small remove from the animal tribes. He who cannot bear thinking, or at least has no disposition for investigation, but takes things merely from the report of others, or as they are imposed upon him by custom or prejudice is a mere slave, and hardly can be wise. It is a remark worthy attention, that "*Thinking has been one of the least exerted privileges of cultivated humanity.*" It must be confessed there is too much truth in the observation. That all men think, is not denied; but, alas! few think with propriety, few bend their thoughts to right objects, few divest themselves of the shackles of ignorance and custom: to be, however intelligent, to be candid, to be useful, a man should give himself to application. In a word, he who would be happy in himself, respectable in society, and a blessing to the world, should persevere in the study of those subjects which are calculated to enlarge the mind, meliorate the disposition, and promote the best interests of mankind.

Demosthenes's application to study was surprising. To be the more removed from noise, and less subject to distraction, he caused a small chamber to be made for him under ground, in which he shut himself up sometimes for whole months, shaving on purpose half his head and face, that he might not be in a condition to go abroad. It was there, by the light of a small lamp he composed the admirable Orations, which were said, by those who envied him, to smell of the oil, to imply they were too elaborate. "It is plain," replied he, "your's did not cost you so much trouble." He rose very early in the morning, and used to say, that "he was sorry when any workman was at his business before him." He copied Thucydides' History, eight times, with his own hand, in order to render the style of that great man familiar to him.

THE WORM AND THE FLOWER.

BY J. MONTGOMERY.

You're spinning for my lady, Worm,
Silk garments for the fair;
You're spinning rainbows for a form
More beautiful than air;
When air is bright with sun-beams,
And morning mists arise
From woody vales, and mountain streams,
To blue autumnal skies.

You're training for my lady, Flower!
You're opening for my love
The glory of her summer bower,
While sky-larks soar above.
Go, twine her locks with rose-buds,
Or breathe upon her breast;
While zephyrs curl the water-floods,
And rock the halcyon's nest.

But Oh! there is another worm
Ere long will visit her,
And revel on her lovely form
In the dark sepulchre:
Yet from that sepulchre shall spring
A flower as sweet as this:
Hard by the nightingale shall sing,
Soft wings its petals kiss.

Frail emblems of frail beauty, ye,
In beauty who would trust?
Since all that charms the eye must be
Consigned to worms and dust.
Yet, like the flower that decks her tomb,
Her soul shall quit the clod,
And shine in amaranthine bloom
Fast by the throne of God!

THE COUNTRY.

It has been very well said by a celebrated author, that "great cities are the graves of the human species." Another author has observed that if the havoc committed upon the human race by the unwholesome atmosphere and pernicious habits of great and populous places were equally made in the country, the human kind could only be perpetuated by a continual series of special miracles. Great cities would, in fact, very soon be depopulated, were not the havoc which death makes in them continually repaired by the influx of population from the country. The atmosphere of populous places is, in truth, being perpetually poisoned and corrupted. Putrid animal and vegetable substances necessarily abound in them; high walls and crowded houses obstruct the free passage of the air; and while miasmata thus created and confined are poisoning the atmosphere, thousands of human beings are breathing it, and, of course, adding to its impurity. It is impossible that such a state of things should be otherwise than unfavorable to human health, and destructive of human life.

In the country, on the other hand, every circumstance is favorable to man. The air, the scenery, the nature of his occupations, the habits of life which those occupations superinduce, and the exemption from the perpetual strife and agitation which are almost inseparable from a town life, render his life not only much more pleasant but much more healthful, and, upon the average, much more extended.

Had we all a free choice as to a town or a country life, few, we apprehend, would hesitate as to embracing the former. But such is not, and cannot be the case. Towns are necessary. The residents in the country need a thousand things which can only be produced by the association of great numbers of men. Husbandmen are necessary to cultivate the earth; but they must have tools, and apparel, and furniture, and houses, and these can only be produced by the residents in towns.

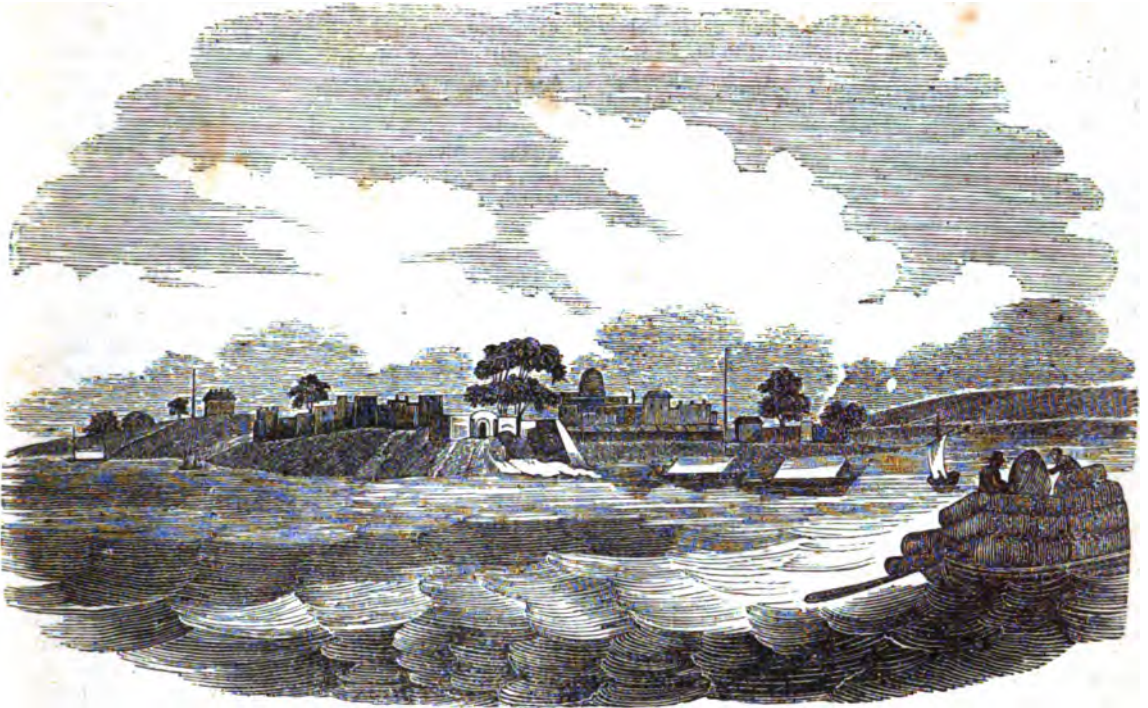
Happily, the dispositions and tastes of men are as various as the circumstances in which they are placed by their Creator. The dwellers in the free air and beautiful scenery of the country would shrink from being compelled to pass their lives amid the smoke and bustle of a populous town. The inhabitants of the town, contrariwise, would tremble at the darkness and stillness which mark the night-time in the country, and would be rendered uneasy by that very calm, which, to a lover of nature, is so exceedingly delightful and inspiring. All this is ordained for the wisest purposes, and for our happiness and welfare. All are thus rendered contented with their condition, and efficient in their employment.

But the pure air of the country, and its exceedingly beautiful scenery, have so excellent an effect upon the human health, and upon the human heart, that we recommend our readers never to neglect a proper opportunity of inhaling the one and beholding the other. The busiest and most important avocations afford some few snatches of leisure; and these can never be better or more wisely employed than in seeking the beauties of nature in their native haunts. During three-fourths of the year the country presents a perfect succession of beauties to the eye of taste, and of enjoyments to the well-attuned soul; and there are few indeed who cannot contrive to quit the busy hum and bustle of the town for a brief space, during one or the other of those periods. To those who are but inattentive

observers of nature, the country cannot fail to present innumerable objects of interest and contemplation.

EFFECTS OF EXPANSION.

A cannon ball, when heated, cannot be made to enter an opening, through which, when cold, it passes readily. A glass stopper sticking fast in the neck of a bottle, may be released by surrounding the neck with a cloth taken out of warm water, or by immersing the bottle in the water up to the neck: the binding ring is thus heated and expanded sooner than the stopper, and so becomes slack or loose upon it. Pipes for conveying hot water, steam, hot air, &c., if of considerable length, must have joinings that allow a degree of shortening and lengthening, otherwise a change of temperature may destroy them. An incompetent person undertook to warm a large manufactory, by steam, from one boiler. He laid a rigid main pipe along a passage, and opened lateral branches through holes into the several apartments, but on his first admitting the steam, the expansion of the main pipe tore it away from all its branches. In an iron railing, a gate which, during a cold day may be loose and easily shut or opened, in a warm day may stick, owing to there being greater expansion of it, and of the neighboring railing, than of the earth on which they are placed. Thus also the centre of the arch of an iron bridge is higher in warm than in cold weather: while, on the contrary, in a suspension or chain bridge the centre is lowered. The iron pillars now so much used to support the front walls of houses, of which the ground stories serve as shops with spacious windows, in warm weather really lift up the wall which rests upon them, and in cold weather allow it again to sink, or subside, in a degree considerably greater than if the wall were brick from top to bottom. The pitch of a piano-forte is lowered in a warm day, or in a warm room, owing to the expansion of the strings being greater than the wooden frame-work; and in cold the reverse will happen. A harp, or piano, which is well tuned in a morning drawing-room, cannot be perfectly in tune when the crowded evening party has heated the room. Bell-wires too, slack in summer, may be of the proper length in winter. There exists a most extraordinary exception, already mentioned, to the law of expansion by heat and contraction by cold, producing unspeakable benefits in nature, namely, in the case of water. Water contracts according to the law only down to the temperature of forty degrees, while, from that to thirty-two degrees, which is its freezing point, it again dilates. A very curious consequence of this peculiarity is exhibited in the wells of the glaciers of Switzerland and elsewhere, namely, that when once a pool, or shallow well, on the ice commences, it goes on quickly deepening itself until it penetrates to the earth beneath. Supposing the surface of the water originally to have nearly the temperature of the melting ice, or thirty-two degrees, but to be afterwards heated by the air and sun, instead of the water being thereby dilated or specifically higher, and detained at the surface, it becomes heavier the more nearly it is heated to forty degrees, and therefore sinks down to the bottom of the pit or well; but there, by dissolving some of the ice, and being consequently cooled, it is again rendered lighter, and rises to be heated as before, again to descend; and this circulation and digging cannot cease until the water has bored its way quite through.—*Arnott*



MONGHYR, HINDOSTAN.

The above engraving represents the very beautiful situation of Monghyr, a celebrated town and fortress of the province of Bahar, in British India, about 300 miles northwest of Calcutta. It is situated on the south side of the river Ganges, which is in this part very wide, and in the rainy season forms an immense expanse of fresh water. The town, as distinct from the fortress, consists of sixteen different bazaars or market-places, scattered over a space of about a mile and a half long and a mile wide, and contains a population estimated at about 30,000. This place was visited by the late Bishop Heber in an excursion up the Ganges, from whose journal we extract the following description:—

"Monghyr, as one approaches it, presents an imposing appearance, having one or two extremely good European houses, each perched on its own little eminence. The ghât afforded a scene of bustle and activity which I by no means expected. As we approached the shore, we were beset by a crowd of beggars and artisans, who brought for sale guns, knives, and other hardware, as also many articles of upholstery and toys. They looked extremely neat, but, as I meant to buy none, I would not raise expectation by examining them. There were also barbers in abundance, conspicuous by their red turbans, one of whom was soon retained by some of my dandees, who sat down one after another on the green bank, to have their hair clipped as close as possible, as became aquatic animals. A juggler, too, made his appearance, leading a tall brown goat, almost as high as a Welsh poney, with two little brown monkeys on its back. In short, it was the liveliest scene which I had encountered during the voyage.

"I arrived early, and was therefore for some time a prisoner in my boat, exposed to the teasing of various applicants for custom. As it grew cool, I walked into the fort, passing by a small but neat English burying-ground, fenced in with a wall, and crammed full of those obelisk tombs which seem

almost distinctive of European India. The fort occupies a great deal of ground, but is now dismantled. Its gates, battlements, &c., are all of Asiatic architecture, and precisely similar to those of Khitairgorod of Moscow. Within is an ample plain of fine turf, dotted with a few trees, and two noble tanks of water, the largest covering a space of a couple of acres. Two high grassy knolls are enclosed within the rampart, occupying two opposite angles of the fort, which is an irregular square, with, I think, twelve semicircular bastions, and a very wide and deep wet moat, except on the west side, where it rises immediately from the rocky banks of the river. On one of the eminences of which I speak is a collection of prison-like buildings; on the other, a very large and handsome house, built originally for the commander-in-chief of the district, at the time that Monghyr was an important station, and the Mahrattas were in the neighborhood; but it was sold some years since by the government. The view from the rampart and the eminences is extremely fine. Monghyr stands on a rocky promontory, with the broad river on both sides, beyond one of which the Rajmahâl hills are visible, and the other is bounded by the nearer range of Curruckpoor. The town is larger than I expected, and in better condition than most native towns. Though all the houses are small, there are many of them with an upper story, and the roofs, instead of the flat terrace or thatch, which are the only alternations in Bengal, are generally sloping, with red tiles of the same shape and appearance as those which we see in Italian pictures. They have also little earthenware ornaments on their gables, such as I have not seen on the other side of Rajmahâl. The shops are numerous, and I was surprised at the neatness of the kettles, tea-trays, guns, pistols, toasting-forks, cutlery, and other things of the sort which may be procured in this tiny Birmingham. I found afterwards that this place had been, from very early antiquity, celebrated for its smiths, who derived their art from the

Hindoo Vulcan, who had been solemnly worshipped, and was supposed to have had a workshop here. The only thing which appears to be wanting to make their steel excellent, is a better manner of smelting, and a more liberal use of charcoal and the hammer. As it is, their guns are very apt to burst, and their knives to break,—precisely the faults which, for want of capital, beset the works of inferior artists in England. The extent, however, to which these people carry on their manufactures, and the closeness with which they imitate English patterns, show plainly how popular those patterns are become amongst the natives."



ICEBERGS.

Icebergs are large bodies of ice filling the valleys between the high mountains in northern latitudes. Among the most remarkable are those of the East Coast of Spitsbergen. The frost sports wonderfully with these bodies, and gives them the most fantastic, and sometimes the most majestic forms.

Masses have been seen assuming the shape of a Gothic Church, with arched windows and doors, and all the rich drapery that an Arabian tale would scarcely dare to describe. Crystal of the richest blue, tables with one or more feet, and often immense flat-roofed temples, supported by round transparent columns, float by the astonished spectators. These icebergs are the creation of ages, and annually increase by the falling of snows, and of rain, which instantly freezes, and more than repairs the loss occasioned by the heat of the sun.

THE UNIFORM ROTATION OF THE EARTH.

The earth which we inhabit is not precisely a spherical body, but a spheroid flattened at its poles, similar in shape to an orange. Its shortest diameter is about 7940 miles, its longest about 7966 miles; their difference being about 26 miles.

This body passes through its orbit, which is nearly a circle of 190 millions of miles in diameter, in a solar year; it also revolves uniformly upon its shorter diameter—as an axis, so as to make a complete rotation in 23h. 56m. 4s.; and *that without the slightest variation, in all seasons of the year, and in all ages of the world.* Laplace, from a comparison of numerous observations, ancient and modern, affirms that this is decidedly and unquestionably the most uniform motion which the universe presents to observation: for, although the planetary rotations probably present the same positive uni-

formity, it is not accompanied with equally decisive evidence.

Now, to the same time of rotation, there are *two* widely different forms, each of which is equally consistent with *stability*. Thus, if the earth were a homogeneous body, the ratio of the polar to the equatorial axis might be either that of 1 to 680, or that of 229 to 130; the latter of these is the one which actually exists; its adoption is a proof of *design*, by which many inconveniences to the inhabitants are avoided, which, however, cannot now be detailed, without deviating from the immediate purpose of this article.

The earth is constituted partly of solid, partly of liquid matter, known under the general distinctions of land and water. If the solid matter had been formed into a precise sphere, and then the water created, that water, as soon as the earth received its rotation, would, by reason of the centrifugal force, have disposed itself about the equatorial regions, so as to cover them entirely with water. To prevent this, a protuberance has been given to the equatorial regions; and the forms, shapes, depths, contour, &c., of the land and water respectively, have been so mutually adjusted, not only there, but in every habitable part of the earth, as to promote, most exquisitely, the well-being of the inhabitants; *so long as the period of rotation remains what it at first was.* There could be but one time of rotation that would thus allow the waters just to fill certain cavities, and yet not to overflow the hills; that is, that would *compel* the general surface of the liquid parts to harmonize with that of the solid parts: and to produce that time of rotation about a given axis, a *given* force must act at a *given* point, and in a *given* direction. What but intelligence and design, operating for a benevolent purpose, could cause the union of these three *independent* circumstances?

But farther, a more rapid rotation would cause more of the waters to flow towards the equatorial regions, and thus, if carried beyond a certain limit, to inundate the whole land there, and leave others dry; while a slower rotation would cause the waters to recede from the equatorial regions, and leave them dry, at the same time inundating the land in the temperate and other regions. So that the uniformity of rotation is essential to the well-being of the inhabitants of the earth; *and yet there is a constant tendency to destroy that uniformity, which is as constantly prevented by the benevolent operation of divine energy.*

To understand the reason of this, let the following facts be considered. In consequence of the rotatory motion, night and day are always dividing between them the surface of the earth; and the day as incessantly rousing into activity that half of the inhabitants over whom the light of the sun is passing. Thus many millions of human beings are incessantly performing some mechanical action or other; and many thousand of animals, and many thousand of machines of different kinds, are as incessantly performing mechanical operations under their superintendence; and this with an inconceivable variety of effort, of direction, and of place, over the entire habitable surface of the globe. In all these actions, except those which are so regulated by refined knowledge and skill as to produce a *maximum* of effect with a given effort (not one in ten thousand probably,) there is a *positive loss* of mechanical power. *WHAT BECOMES OF IT?* Since action and reaction are equal and opposite, the amount of these losses of power is expended upon,

the earth, the necessary fulcrum of all our movements. Now, either all these millions of losses of power, incessantly occurring, must be directed towards the centre of the earth, which is infinitely improbable; or they must so occur, as every moment just to counterbalance and annihilate each other, which is also infinitely improbable; or they must constantly tend to change the velocity and duration of the earth's rotation, and thus to produce the evils which we have shown would result from such a change. It is, indeed, quite impossible to estimate the accumulation of mischief that would thus accrue, in one month, from ignorance, in the application of human, animal, and mechanical agency; but a bare reference to the facts may serve to excite a train of devotional meditation upon "the goodness and mercy" that are constantly engaged in a wide field of providential operation which is thus laid open, and which is not the less real for being shut to the ken of our senses, since it is open to the enraptured view of intellect and science.



THE OCELOT.

One of the most beautiful of cats is the Ocelot. It is smaller than the leopard, being generally about three feet in length and eighteen inches in height. Upon a gray ground, slightly tinged with fawn, are marked longitudinal bands, of which the margins are perfectly black, and the central parts of a deeper fawn than the general ground. These margins of black, inclosing a deep fawn, become black lines and spots, on the neck, and head, and on the outer sides of the limbs. From the top of the head towards the shoulders there pass several diverging black bands; and on the top of the back, the line is quite continuous. The tail is spotted upon a ground like that of the body.

The ocelot in the garden of the Zoological Society of London, died during a late severe winter. The above portrait is from the specimen in the Tower, which is remarkable for the shortness of the tail. This animal was presented to the King of England by Sir Ralph Woodford, late governor of Trinidad. It is tolerable docile; and does not seize its food with the violence which distinguishes nearly every other species of the cat tribe. This ocelot is usually fed upon rabbits and birds, upon which it principally preys in a state of nature.

The ocelot, in its native state is exceedingly ferocious, yet cowardly, and perfers blood to flesh, in consequence of which its victims are numerous.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION OF CHILDREN.

Do not press your children too much during their early years on the subject of religion. Show them, by your example, that it is the object of your own reverence; but suffer their religious principles to form gradually, as their understandings open. Do not make religion appear to them a burden; do not lay them under unnecessary restraints; do not let them see religion clothed in a dress repulsive to their youthful minds. To insure its making a good impression on them, let it be clothed in its native colors of attraction. Study to make them regard it as an object of veneration, but, at the same time, what it truly is, as a source of cheerfulness and joy. Do not let them regard the Sabbath as a day of gloom and restraint. Take them with you to the House of God, and accustom them to regard the institutions of religion with reverence, but do not compel them, during the rest of the day, to remain immured within the walls of your own house. Allow them the reasonable indulgence of air and exercise—an indulgence useful to their health, rational in itself, and no way inconsistent with their religious character; while the refusal of that indulgence has just the effect of making them regard the return of the day as a day of penance and mortification, instead of hailing it as a day of joy.

THEY ARE GONE!

(From Moore's Evenings in Greece.)

Ah! where are they who heard, in former hours,
The voice of song in these neglected bowers?
They are gone—there are all gone!

The youth, who told his pain in such sweet tone,
That all who heard him wished his pain their own—
He is gone—he is gone!

And she who, while he sung, sat listening by,
And thought, to strains like these 't were sweet to die.
She is gone—she, too, is gone!

'T is thus, in future hours, some bard will say
Of her who hears, and him who sings this lay—
They are gone—they both are gone!

Advertisements.—We are sometimes astonished at the impudent assertions of quacks in their public announcements at the present day. Their predecessors, however, went somewhat further, as the two following advertisements taken from the original edition of the Spectator will show:—"An admirable confection which assuredly cures stuttering and stammering in children or grown persons, though never so bad, causing them to speak distinct and free without any trouble or difficulty; it remedies all manner of impediments in the speech, or disorders of the voice of any kind, proceeding from what cause soever, rendering those persons capable of speaking easily and free, and with a clear voice, who before were not able to utter a sentence without hesitation. Its stupendous effects in so quickly and infallibly curing stuttering and stammering, and all disorders of the voice and difficulty in delivery of the speech, are really wonderful. Price 2s. 6d. a pot, with directions. Sold only at Mr. Osborn's Toy-shop, at the Rose and Crown, under St. Dunstan's church, Fleet-street."

"Loss of memory, or forgetfulness, certainly cured, by a grateful electuary, peculiarly adapted for that end; it strikes at the primary source, which few apprehend, of forgetfulness, makes the head clear and easy, the spirits free, active, and undisturbed; corroborates and revives all the noble faculties of the soul, such as thought, judgment, apprehension, reason, and memory, which last in particular it so strengthens as to render that faculty exceeding quick, and good beyond imagination; thereby enabling those whose memory was before almost totally lost to remember the minutest circumstance of their affairs, &c. to a wonder. Price 2s. 6d. a pot. Sold only at Mr. Payne's, at the Angel and Crown, in St. Paul's Church-yard, with directions."

GENERAL PUTNAM.

Few men have been more remarkable than General Putnam for the acts of successful rashness to which a bold and intrepid spirit frequently prompted him.

When he was pursued by General Tryon at the head of fifteen hundred men, his only method of escape was precipitating his horse down the steep declivity of the rock called Horse-neck; and as none of his pursuers dared to imitate his example, he escaped.

But an act of still more daring intrepidity was his venturing to clear in a boat, the tremendous waterfalls of Hudson's river. This was in the year 1756, when Putnam fought against the French and their allies, the Indians. He was accidentally with a boat and five men, on the eastern side of the river, contiguous to these falls. His men, who were on the opposite side, informed him by signal, that a considerable body of savages were advancing to surround him, and there was not a moment to lose. Three modes of conduct were at his option—to remain, fight, and be sacrificed; to attempt to pass to the other side exposed to the full shot of the enemy; or to sail down the waterfalls, with almost a certainty of being overwhelmed. These were the only alternatives. Putnam did not hesitate, and jumped into the boat at the fortunate instant, for one of his companions, who was at a little distance, was a victim to the Indians. His enemies soon arrived, and discharged their muskets at the boat before he could get out of their reach. No sooner had he escaped this danger through the rapidity of the current, but death presented itself under a more terrific form. Rocks, whose points projected above the surface of the water; large masses of timber that nearly closed the passage; absorbing gulfs, and rapid descents, for the distance of a quarter of a mile, left him no hope of escape but by a miracle. Putnam however placed himself at the helm, and directed it with the utmost tranquillity. His companions saw him with admiration, terror, and astonishment, avoid with the utmost address the rocks and threatening gulfs, which they every instant expected to devour him. He disappeared, rose again, and directing his course across the only passage which he could possibly make, he at length gained the even surface of the river that flowed at the bottom of this dreadful cascade. The Indians were no less surprised. This miracle astonished them almost as much as the sight of the first Europeans that approached the banks of this river. They considered Putnam as invulnerable; and they thought that they should offend the Great Spirit, if they attempted the life of a man that was so visibly under his immediate protection.

Fear.—Charles Gustavus (the successor of Christina of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when a boor of most extraordinary visage desired admittance to his tent, and, being allowed entrance, offered, by way of amusing the king, to devour a whole hog, weighing two hundred weight, in his presence. The old General Konigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, and who, soldier as he was, had not got rid of the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to his royal master that the peasant ought to be burnt as a sorcerer. "Sir," said the fellow, irritated at the remark, "if your majesty will but make that old gentleman take off his sword and his spurs I will eat him before your face, before I begin the pig." General Konigsmarc (who at the head of a body of Swedes had performed wonders against the Austrians, and who was looked upon as one of the bravest men of the age) could not stand this proposal, especially as it was accompanied by a most hideous and preternatural expansion of the frightful peasant's awa. Without uttering a word the veteran suddenly turned round, ran out of the court, and thought himself not safe until he had arrived at his quarters.

Balloon Ascension.—Mr. Durant, the aeronaut, made his fifth balloon ascension from Castle Garden, in New York, on the 29th of May. The balloon, a few seconds after it sprang from the earth, was hidden in the clouds, which were low and dense, and nothing more was seen of the aerial traveller. Mr. Durant landed in Westchester county, eleven miles from the City Hall, at four minutes past five, so that he must have been an hour and thirty six minutes on his way. His rise, he says, was very rapid, but he soon passed through the stratum of clouds in which the balloon was so immediately lost to the spectators below, and then found himself in a clear region of sunshine, with a boundless ocean of fog beneath him. The balloon continued to rise with great rapidity, till, as Mr. D. estimates, he had attained the height of about 16 or 17,000 feet, (three miles.) His whole attention, however, being required to the means requisite to arrest the upward progress of his rapid bark, he could not ascertain by his barometer the precise height. When in the clear region, a northerly breeze wafted him towards the ocean, and just as he descended and touched the upper surface of the clouds again, he distinctly

heard the roaring of the surf. After entering the clouds a southeaster drove him back, and he continued gradually lowering himself to the earth, till in about thirty-five minutes from the time when he heard the ocean roar, he landed on terra firma, about thirty miles, we may presume, in a straight line, from the sea. He was assisted in securing his balloon by two or three black men at work in the fields—and returned to town, himself and his ship of the air, unharmed.

Sheridan and Tickell.—Sheridan delighted in practical jokes, and seems to have enjoyed a sheer piece of mischief, with all the gusto of a school-boy. At this kind of sport, Tickell and Sheridan were often play-fellows: and the tricks which they inflicted on each other, were frequently attended with rather unpleasant consequences. One night, he induced Tickell to follow him down a dark passage, on the floor of which he had placed all the plates and dishes he could muster, in such a manner, that while a clear path was left open for his own escape, it would have been a miracle if Tickell did not smash two-thirds of them. The result was as Sheridan had anticipated: Tickell fell among the crockery, which so severely cut him in many places, that Lord John Townshend found him, the next day, in bed, and covered with patches. "Sheridan has behaved atrociously towards me," said he, "and I am resolved to be revenged on him. But," added he, his admiration at the trick entirely subduing his indignation, "how amazingly well it was managed!"

Story told by Luther.—A monk who had introduced himself to the bedside of a dying nobleman, who was at that time in a state of insensibility, continued crying out, "My Lord, will you make the grant of such and such a thing to our monastery?" The sick man, unable to speak, nodded his head. The monk turned round to the son, "You see, Sir, that my Lord your father gives his consent to my request." The son immediately exclaimed, "Father, is it your will that I should kick this monk down stairs?" The usual nod was given. The young man immediately rewarded the assiduities of the monk by sending him with great precipitation out of the house.

VARIETIES.

The New York Com. Advertiser, contains a letter from Port Praya, which states that THIRTY THREE THOUSAND of the inhabitants of those islands have perished by famine within a year. The wretched sufferers are still dying daily.

Clouds of locusts, have lately made their appearance in Arkansas. In the forests their course is marked by the wilted and yellow leaves of the young and tender branches which have been perforated by them for the deposit of their eggs.

The latest statement of the Moravian brethren makes the whole number of their sect, dispersed over the globe, to consist of not more than 16,000 members. Notwithstanding this they maintain 127 missions for the conversion of the heathen, at an annual expense of 60,000 dollars.

The President of the United States, accompanied by the Vice President and Secretary of the Navy, reached Washington on the Fourth of July, from a tour through the northern states.

The corner stone of the Girard College was laid at Philadelphia on the 4th July. The ceremony was witnessed by a large and respectable assemblage of citizens, and an eloquent address was delivered on the occasion by Nicholas Biddle Esq.

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Vol. I



MONUMENT TO WOLFE AND MONTCALM.

The citadel of Quebec is as impregnable as a commanding site, massive ramparts, and guns of the largest caliber can make it, and is the strongest fortress in the western world. With barracks and casements, there are accommodations for many thousand men, and the magazines are large and fully supplied with the munitions of war. Below the highest part of the rock, is the spot where the American general, Montgomery, was shot in an unsuccessful attempt to surprise the town.

Outside the citadel is a tall obelisk, erected by subscription in the time of Lord Dalhousie, to the memory of Wolfe and Montcalm. An engraving of this obelisk is presented above.

Quebec was formerly the capital of the French dominions in North America. It was well fortified, situated in the midst of a country hostile to the English, and defended by an army of 20,000 men, regulars and militia, besides a considerable number of Indians. The troops destined for the expedition against Quebec consisted of ten battalions, making altogether about 7000 men.

On the 13th of September, 1759, the grand attack was commenced. General Wolfe landed his army on the northern shore of the river St. Lawrence. The difficulty of ascending the hill was so

great, that the soldiers not being able to go two abreast, were obliged to pull themselves up by the stumps and boughs of trees that covered the declivity. The French commenced the battle with a brisk fire of musketry. Wolfe ordered his men to reserve their fire until they were within forty yards of the enemy. They then attacked with great fury, and the French gave way. In the commencement of the battle, General Wolfe was wounded in the wrist by a musket ball; he wrapped his handkerchief round it, and continued to give his orders with his usual calmness and perspicuity. Towards the end of the engagement, he received another wound in his breast, which obliged him to retire behind the rear rank. Here he laid himself on the ground. Soon after, a shout was heard, and one of the officers near him exclaimed, "See how they run!" The dying hero asked with some emotion, "Who run?" "The enemy," replied the officer, "they give way every where." The general then said, "Now, God be praised, I shall die happily."

It has been asserted, that when Wolfe received his death wound, his principal care was, that he should not be seen to fall. "Support me," said he to such as were near him; "let not my brave

soldiers see me drop; the day is ours! Oh! keep it;" and with these words he expired.

In the battle, with Wolfe fell the commander-in-chief of the French American colonies, Montcalm. He was born in France in 1712, entered the military service in his 15th year, and was sent to Canada in 1756. He highly distinguished himself on several occasions.

ÆSOP, AND HIS FABLES.

In all ages and nations, the fables of Æsop have been resorted to for the instruction of young people, and have supplied matter for the wisdom of more advanced years. If the infant mind can be taught to abhor violence and injustice by the fable of the *Wolf and the Lamb*; if the advantages of persevering industry can be inculcated by the story of the *Hare and the Tortoise*; and if the disgrace of the bragging traveller can supply the young with a caution against boasting, lessons of more extended wisdom may be derived from the various apologues in which not beasts, fishes, or trees alone, but human beings and fabulous divinities are introduced. To no author, excepting Æsop, has it happened to have portions of his works condensed into proverbial sayings, passing from mouth to mouth, as matter of familiar conversation, too applicable to demand introduction, too well known to require explanation. Thus, when we speak of *Blowing Hot and Cold*, no one expects that the story of the *Satyr and the Traveller* should be repeated to him; or, when mention is made of the *Dog in the Manger*, the *Viper and the File*, or the *Mountain in Labor*, the mind of the hearer is instantly informed that envious selfishness, malignant and impotent rage, and rash promises, or threats, productive of no consequence, are meant to be described and satirized.

Æsop, the author of most of the fables which are current in the collections passing under his name, made his way to eminence, unfavored by any circumstances of birth, fortune, or person: he was a Phrygian, of the lowest order of society, a purchased slave, and of person so deformed, that the description of him is nearly hideous; and, as if merit were allotted to him only to show against what difficulties it can successfully struggle, he had an impediment in his speech, which rendered him almost unintelligible. Yet, by persevering patience, and the manly struggle of a firm and exalted mind, he was enabled to become, not only the companion of his superiors, but the instructor of those who most prided themselves on their wisdom. His prudent counsels quieted the minds of the Athenians, when they were ready to break out into fatal violence, at the usurpation of Pisistratus; he taught them the dangers they had to apprehend from the alliances, or even the quarrels, of powerful and dangerous neighbors; and all this by such popular narratives as remain forever fixed in the memory, and form a continual guide to the judgment.

The effect of his wisdom was such, that he was not only respected and well treated during his life, but, as Phædrus, the most spirited and accomplished of his translators, has informed us, the polite Athenians dedicated a colossal statue to his memory; and, although he had been but a slave, consecrated his fame on an imperishable pedestal, to inform mankind, says the Roman author, that the road to honorable distinction was open to all men.

Wits of the first class in all nations, from Phæ-

drus, in Rome, to La Fontaine, in Paris, have thought their time well employed in collecting, amplifying, pointing, and embellishing the narratives of this author, with the addition of similar stories and anecdotes,—such as passing time and their own observation could supply. Every nation has shown the state of the times, or its prevailing genius, in the manner of rendering, augmenting, or imitating, this, their great model.

Of the imitators of Æsop, it is not intended to speak; but self-denial would be too severely taxed, were no mention to be made of the elegant fictions of Gay, so exquisitely invented, and judiciously applied, as to raise a spark of honest envy even in the friendly bosom of Swift.

It is earnestly to be hoped that the fables of Æsop, as the means of information and instruction, may never be disused nor neglected. In the course of them he portrays himself as a friend of truth and justice, a man of sincere benevolence, and communicative of his good principles; as a man who honored and feared the gods whom he was brought up to worship, although his mind carried him above the feebleness of superstition, and protected him against the arts of deception.

ARABIAN HOSPITALITY.

Haji Ben Hassuna, a chief of a party of the Bey's (of Tripoli) troops, pursued by Arabs, lost his way, and was benighted near the enemy's camp. Passing the door of a tent which was open, he stopped his horse and implored assistance, being exhausted with fatigue and thirst. The warlike Arab bid his enemy enter his tent with confidence, and treated him with all the respect and hospitality for which his people are so famous. The highest among them, like the Patriarchs of old, wait on their guest. A man of rank, when visited by a stranger, quickly fetches a lamb from his flock and kills it, and his wife superintends her women in dressing it in the best manner.

With some of the Arabs, the primitive custom (so often spoken of in the Bible,) of washing the feet is yet adopted, and this compliment is performed by the head of the family. Their supper was the best of the fatted lamb roasted; their dessert, dates and dried fruit; and the Arab's wife, to honor more particularly her husband's guest, set before him a dish of "boseen" of her own making. This was a preparation of flour and water kneaded into a paste, which being half baked was broken to pieces and kneaded again with new milk, oil, and salt, and garnished with "kadeed," or mutton, dried and salted in the highest manner.

Though these two chiefs were opposed in war, they talked with candor and friendship to each other, recounting the achievements of themselves and their ancestors, when a sudden paleness overspread the countenance of the host. He started from his seat and retired, and in a few moments afterwards sent word to his guest that his bed was prepared, and all things ready for his repose; that he was not well himself, and could not attend to finish the repast; that he had examined the Moor's horse, and found it too much exhausted to bear him through a hard journey the next day, but that before sunrise an able horse with every accommodation would be ready at the door of the tent, where he would meet him and expect him to depart with all speed. The stranger, not able to account farther for the conduct of his host, retired to rest.

An Arab waked him in time to take refreshment before his departure, which was ready prepared for him; but he saw none of the family, till he perceived, on reaching the door of the tent, the master of it holding the bridle of his horse, and supporting his stirrups for him to mount, which is done among the Arabs as the last office of friendship. No sooner was Haji mounted, than his host announced to him that throughout the whole of the enemy's camp he had not so great an enemy to dread as himself. "Last night," said he, "in the exploits of your ancestors, you discovered to me the murderer of my father. There lie all the habits he was slain in, (which were at that moment brought to the door of the tent) over which, in the presence of my family, I have many times sworn to revenge his death, and to seek the blood of his murderer from sunrise to sunset. The sun has not yet risen: the sun will be no more than risen, when I pursue you, after you have in safety quitted my tent, where, fortunately for you, it is against our religion to molest you after your having sought my protection and found a refuge there; but all my obligations cease as soon as we part, and from that moment you must consider me as one determined on your destruction, in whatever part, or at whatever distance we may meet again. You have not mounted a horse inferior to the one that stands ready for myself; on its swiftness surpassing that of mine depends one of our lives, or both."

After saying this, he shook his adversary by the hand and parted from him. The Moor, profiting by the few moments he had in advance, reached the Bey's army in time to escape his pursuer, who followed him closely, as near the enemy's camp as he could with safety. This was certainly a striking trait of hospitality, but it was no more than every Arab and every Moor in the same circumstances would do.

THE DOGS OF ST. BERNARD.



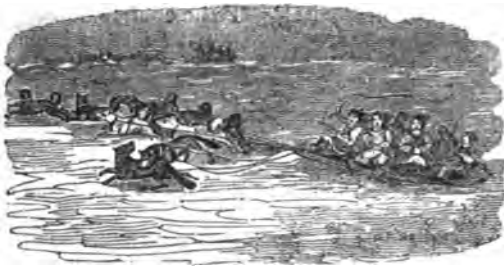
Child preserved by a dog.

The convent of the Great St. Bernard is situated near the top of the mountain known by that name, near one of the most dangerous passages of the Alps, between Switzerland and Savoy. In these regions the traveller is often overtaken by the most severe weather, even after days of cloudless beauty, when the glaciers glitter in the sunshine, and the pink flowers of the rhododendron appear as if they were never to be sullied by the tempest. But a storm suddenly comes on; the roads are rendered impassable by drifts of snow; the avalanches, which are huge loosened masses of snow or ice, are swept into the valleys, carrying trees and crags of rock before them. The hospitable monks, though their

revenue is scanty, open their doors to every stranger that presents himself. To be cold, to be weary, to be benighted, constitute the title to their comfortable shelter, their cheering meal, and their agreeable converse. But their attention to the distressed does not end here. They devote themselves to the dangerous task of searching for those unhappy persons who may have been overtaken by the sudden storm, and would perish but for their charitable succor. Most remarkably are they assisted in these truly Christian offices. They have a breed of noble dogs in their establishment, whose extraordinary sagacity often enables them to rescue the traveller from destruction. Benumbed with cold, weary in the search for a lost track, his senses yielding to the stupifying influence of frost, which betrays the exhausted sufferer into a deep sleep, the unhappy man sinks upon the ground, and the snow-drift covers him from human sight. It is then that the keen scent and the exquisite docility of these admirable dogs are called into action.

Though the perishing man lie ten or even twenty feet beneath the snow, the delicacy of smell with which they can trace him offers a chance of escape. They scratch away the snow with their feet; they set up a continued hoarse and solemn bark, which brings the monks and laborers of the convent to their assistance. To provide for the chance that the dogs, without human help, may succeed in discovering the unfortunate traveller, one of them has a flask of spirits round his neck, to which the fainting man may apply for support; and another has a cloak to cover him. These wonderful exertions are often successful; and even where they fail of restoring him who has perished, the dogs discover the body, so that it may be secured for the recognition of friends; and such is the effect of the temperature, that the dead features generally preserve their firmness for the space of two years. One of these noble creatures was decorated with a medal, in commemoration of his having saved the lives of twenty-two persons, who, but for his sagacity, must have perished. Many travellers who have crossed the passage of St. Bernard, since the peace, have seen this dog, and have heard, around the blazing fire of the monks, the story of his extraordinary career. He died about the year 1816, in an attempt to convey a poor traveller to his anxious family. The Piedmontese courier arrived at St. Bernard in a very stormy season, laboring to make his way to the little village of St. Pierre, in the valley beneath the mountain, where his wife and children dwelt. It was in vain that the monks attempted to check his resolution to reach his family. They at last gave him two guides, each of whom was accompanied by a dog, of which one was the remarkable creature whose services had been so valuable to mankind. Descending from the convent, they were in an instant overwhelmed by two avalanches; and the same common destruction awaited the family of the poor courier, who were toiling up the mountain in the hope to obtain some news of their expected friend. They all perished.

A story is told of one of these dogs, who, having found a child unhurt whose mother had been destroyed by an avalanche, induced the poor boy to mount upon his back, and thus carried him to the gate of the convent. The subject is represented in a French print, which we have copied.



THE ESKIMAUX DOGS.

The dogs of the Eskimau offer to us a striking example of the great services which the race of dogs has rendered to mankind in the progress of civilisation. The inhabitants of the shores of Baffin's Bay, and of those still more inclement regions to which discovery ships have penetrated, are perhaps never destined to advance much farther than their present condition in the scale of humanity. Their climate forbids them attempting the gratification of any desires beyond the commonest animal wants. In the short summers, they hunt the rein-deer for a stock of food and clothing; during the long winter, when the stern demands of hunger drive them from their snow huts to search for provisions, they still find a supply in the rein-deer, in the seals which lie in holes under the ice of the lakes, and in the bears which prowl about on the frozen shores of the sea. Without the exquisite scent and the undaunted courage of their dogs, the several objects of their chase could never be obtained in sufficient quantities during the winter, to supply the wants of the inhabitants; nor could the men be conveyed from place to place over the snow, with that celerity which greatly contributes to their success in hunting. In drawing the sledges, if the dogs scent a single rein-deer, even a quarter of a mile distant, they gallop off furiously in the direction of the scent; and the animal is soon within reach of the unerring arrow of the hunter. They will discover a seal-hole entirely by the smell, at a very great distance. Their desire to attack the ferocious bear is so great, that the word *nenmook*, which signifies that animal, is often used to encourage them, when running in a sledge; two or three dogs, led forward by a man, will fasten upon the largest bear without hesitation. They are eager to chase every animal but the wolf; and of him they appear to have an instinctive terror which manifests itself on his approach, in a loud and long continued howl. Certainly there is no animal which combines so many properties useful to his master, as the dog of the Eskimau.

The dogs of the Eskimau lead always a fatiguing, and often a very painful life. In the summer they are fat and vigorous; for they have abundance of *kaou*, or the skin and part of the blubber of the walrus. But their feeding in winter is very precarious. Their masters have but little to spare; and the dogs become miserably thin, at a time when the severest labor is imposed upon them. It is not, therefore, surprising that the shouts and blows of their drivers have no effect in preventing them from rushing out of their road to pick up whatever they can descry; or that they are constantly creeping into the huts, to pilfer any thing within their reach: their chances of success are but small; for the people within the huts are equally keen in the protection of their stores, and they spend half their time in shouting out the names of the intruders (for the dogs have all names,) and in driving them forth by the most unmerciful blows

The hunger which the Eskimau dogs feel so severely in winter, is somewhat increased by the temperature they live in. In cold climates, and in temperate ones in cold weather, animal food is required in larger quantities than in warm weather, and in temperate regions. The only mode which the dogs have of assuaging or deceiving the calls of hunger, is by the distention of the stomach with any filth which they can find to swallow. The painful sense of hunger is generally regarded as the effect of the contraction of the stomach, which effect is constantly increased by a draught of cold liquid. Captain Parry mentions that in winter the Eskimau dogs will not drink water, unless it happen to be oily. They know, by experience, that their cravings would be increased by this indulgence, and they lick some clean snow as a substitute, which produces a less contraction of the stomach than water. Dogs, in general, can bear hunger for a very long time, without any serious injury, having a supply of some substance for the distension of their stomachs.

ON THE DEATH OF A FRIEND.

Friend after friend departs;
Who hath not lost a friend?
There is no union here of hearts
That finds not here an end;
Were this frail world our final rest,
Living or dying none were blest.

Beyond the flight of time,—
Beyond the reign of death,—
There surely is some blessed clime
Where life is not a breath;
Nor life's affections, transient fire,
Whose sparks fly upwards and expire.

There is a world above,
Where parting is unknown;
A long eternity of love,
Formed for the good alone;
And faith beholds the dying, here,
Translated to that glorious sphere!

Thus star by star declines,
Till all are past away;
As morning high and higher shines,
To pure and perfect day;
Nor sink those stars in empty night,
But hide themselves in heaven's own light.

MONTEGOMERY.

EXCESS IN THE PURSUIT OF KNOWLEDGE.

The principal end why we are to get knowledge here, is to make use of it for the benefit of ourselves and others in this world; but if by gaining it we destroy our health, we labor for a thing that will be useless in our hands; and if by harassing our bodies, (though with a design to render ourselves more useful,) we deprive ourselves of the abilities and opportunities of doing that good we might have done with a meaner talent, which God thought sufficient for us, by having denied us the strength to improve it to that pitch which men of stronger constitutions can attain to, we rob God of so much service, and our neighbor of all that help, which, in a state of health, with moderate knowledge, we might have been able to perform. He that sinks his vessel by overloading it, though it be with gold and silver and precious stones, will give his owner but an ill account of his voyage.—Locke.

A HAPPY RETORT.

The obscurity of Lord Tenterden's birth is well known; but he had too much good sense to feel any false shame on that account. We have heard it related of him, that when, in an early period of his professional career, a brother barrister, with whom he happened to have a quarrel, had the bad taste to twit him on his origin; his manly and severe answer was, "Yes, sir, I am the son of a barber; if you had been the son of a barber, you would have been a barber yourself."



RESTORED VIEW OF POMPEII.

It is certainly surprising, that this most interesting city should have remained undiscovered until so late a period, and that antiquaries and learned men should have so long and materially erred about its situation. In many places masses of ruins, portions of the buried theatres, temples, and houses were not two feet below the surface of the soil; the country people were continually digging up pieces of worked marble, and other antique objects; in several spots they had even laid open the outer walls of the town; and yet men did not find out *what it was*, that peculiar, isolated mound of cinders and ashes, earth and pumice-stone, covered. There is another circumstance which increases the wonder of Pompeii remaining so long concealed. A subterranean canal, cut from the river Sarno, traverses the city, and is seen darkly and silently gliding on under the temple of Isis. This is said to have been cut towards the middle of the fifteenth century, to supply the contiguous town of the Torre dell'Annunziata with fresh water; it probably ran anciently in the same channel. But, cutting it, or clearing it, workmen must have crossed under Pompeii from one side to the other.

As you walk round the walls of the city, and see now the volcanic matter is piled upon it in one heap, it looks as though the hand of man had purposely buried it, by carrying and throwing over it the volcanic matter. This matter does not spread in any direction beyond the town, over the fine plain which gently declines towards the bay of Naples. The volcanic eruption was so confined in its course or its fall, as to bury Pompeii, and only Pompeii: for the shower of ashes and pumice-stone which descended in the immediate neighborhood certainly made but a slight difference in the elevation of the plain.

Where a town has been buried by lava, like Herculaneum, the process is easily traced. You can follow the black, hardened lava from the cone of the mountain to the sea whose waters it invaded for "many a rood," and those who have seen the lava in its liquid state, when it flows on like a river of molten iron, can conceive at once how it would bury every thing it found in its way. There is often a confusion of ideas, among those who have not had the advantages of visiting these interesting places, as to the matter which covers Pompeii and Herculaneum: they fancy they were both buried by lava. Herculaneum was so, and the work of excavating there, was like digging in a quarry of very hard stone. The descent into the places cleared is like the descent into a quarry or mine, and you are always under ground, lighted by torches.

But Pompeii was covered by loose mud, pumice-stone, and ashes, over which, in the course of centuries, there collected vegetable soil. Beneath this shallow soil, the whole is very crumbly and easy to dig, in few spots more difficult than one of

our common gravel-pits. The matter excavated is carried off in carts, and thrown outside of the town; and in times when the labor is carried on with activity, as cart after cart withdraws with the earth that covered them, you see houses entire, except their roofs, which have nearly always fallen in, make their appearance, and, by degrees, a whole street opens to the sun-shine or the shower, just like the streets of any inhabited neighboring town. It is curious to observe, as the volcanic matter is removed, that the houses are principally built of lava, the more ancient product of the same Vesuvius, whose later results buried and concealed Pompeii for so many ages.



Implements of building found at Pompeii.

In the autumn of 1822 I saw Pompeii under very interesting circumstances. It was a few days after an eruption of Vesuvius which I had witnessed, and which was considered by far the grandest eruption of recent times. From Portici, our road was coated with lapilla or pumice-stone, and a fine, impalpable powder, of a palish gray hue, that had been discharged from the mountain, round whose base we were winding. In many places this coating was more than a foot deep, but it was pretty equally spread, not accumulating in any particular spot. As we drove into Pompeii our carriage wheels crushed this matter, which contained the principal components of what had buried the city: it was lodged on the edges of the houses' walls, and on their roofs, (where the Neapolitan government had furnished them with any;) it lay inches thick on the tops of the pillars and truncated columns of the ancient temples; it covered all the floors of the houses that had no roofs, and concealed the mosaics. In the amphitheatre, where we sat down to refresh ourselves, we were obliged to make the guides clear it away with shovels—it was every where. Looking from the upper walls of the amphitheatre, we saw the whole country covered with it—trees and all were coated with the pale-gray plaster, nor did it disappear for many months after.

Some ignorant fellows at Naples pretended the fine ashes, or powder, contained gold! Neapolitans began to collect it. They found no gold, but it turned out to be an excellent thing for cleaning and polishing plate!

This dust continued to be blown from the mountain many days after the eruption had ceased. It once made a pretty figure of me! I was riding up the Posilippo road when it came on to rain; the rain brought down and gave consistency to the dust, which adhered to my black coat and pantaloons, until I looked as if I had been rolled in plaster of Paris.

But it travelled farther than Posilippo, for a friend of mine, an officer in the navy, assured me

it had fallen with rain on the deck of his ship, when between three and four hundred miles from Naples and Mount Vesuvius. There is an old story, that during one of the great eruptions of this mountain, or Etna, cinders were thrown as far as Constantinople; by substituting the fine powder I have alluded to, for cinders, the story becomes not improbable.

ANECDOTES OF THE SLOTH.

"It must be observed, that the Sloth does not hang head-downwards, like the vampire. When asleep, he supports himself from a branch parallel to the earth. He first seizes the branch with one arm, and then with the other; and after that, brings up both his legs, one by one, to the same branch, so that all the four are in a line: he seems perfectly at rest in this position. As the Sloth is an inhabitant of forests within the tropics, where the trees touch each other in the greatest profusion, there seems to be no reason why he should confine himself to one tree alone for food, and entirely strip it of its leaves. During the many years I have ranged the forests, I have never seen a tree in such a state of nudity; indeed, I would hazard a conjecture, that by the time the animal has finished the last of the old leaves, there would be a new crop on the part of the tree he had stripped first, ready for him to begin again, so quick is the process of vegetation in these countries." In an experiment tried by the traveller of putting a dog to death by means of the exceedingly subtle wourali poison, made by the South American Indians, "some faint resistance on the part of nature (says he) was observed, as its existence struggled for superiority; but in the following instance of the Sloth, life sunk in death without the least apparent contention, without a cry, without a struggle, and without a groan. This was the *Ai*, or three-toed Sloth. It was in the possession of a gentleman who was collecting curiosities. He wished to have it killed, in order to preserve the skin, and the wourali poison was resorted to as the easiest death. Of all animals, not even the toad and tortoise excepted, this poor ill-formed creature is the most tenacious of life. It exists long after it has received wounds which would have destroyed any other animal; and it may be said, on seeing a mortally wounded Sloth, that life disputes with death every inch of flesh in its body. The *Ai* was wounded in the leg, and put down on the floor, about two feet from the table; it contrived to reach the leg of the table, and fastened itself on it, as if wishful to ascend. But this was its last advancing step; life was ebbing fast, though imperceptibly; nor could this singular production of nature, which has been formed of a texture to resist death in a thousand shapes, make any stand against the wourali poison. First, one fore-leg let go its hold, and dropped down motionless by its side; the other gradually did the same. The fore-legs having now lost their strength, the Sloth slowly doubled its body, and placed its head betwixt its hind-legs, which still adhered to the table; but when the poison had affected these also, it sunk to the ground, but sunk so gently, that you could not distinguish the movement from an ordinary motion; and had you been ignorant that it was wounded with a poisoned arrow, you would never have suspected that it was dying. During the tenth minute from the time it was wounded, it stirred, and that was all; and the minute after, life's last spark was out." *Waterton.*



TASSO.

On the 11th of March, 1544, was born at Sorrento, near Naples, Torquato Tasso, the great author of the *Gerusalemme Liberata* (*Jerusalem Delivered*.) His father was Bernardo Tasso, also a scholar and a poet, in his own day of considerable repute. The life of Tasso was almost from its commencement a troubled romance. His infancy was distinguished by extraordinary precocity; but he was yet a mere child when political events induced his father to leave Naples, and, separating himself from his family, to take up his abode at Rome. Hither Torquato, when he was only in his eleventh year, was called upon to follow him, and to bid adieu both to what had been hitherto his home, and to the only parent whom it might almost be said he had ever known. The feelings of the young poet expressed themselves upon this occasion in some lines of great tenderness and beauty, which have been thus translated:—

"Forth from a mother's fostering breast
Fate plucks me in my helpless years:
With sighs I look back on her tears
Bathing the lips her kisses preat;
Alas! her pure and ardent prayers
The fugitive breeze now idly bears:
No longer breathe we face to face,
Gathered in knot-like close embrace;
Like young Aescanius or Camill', my feet
Unstable seek a wandering sire's retreat."

He never again saw his mother; she died about eighteen months after he had left her. The only near relation he now had remaining besides his father was a sister; and from her also he was separated, those with whom she resided after her mother's death at Naples preventing her from going to share, as she wished to do, the exile of her father and brother. But after the two latter had been together for about two years at Rome, circumstances occurred which again divided them. Bernardo found it necessary to consult his safety by retiring from that city, on which he proceeded himself to Urbino, and sent his son to Bergamo, in the north of Italy. The favorable reception, however, which the former found at the court of the Duke of Urbino, in

duced him in a few months to send for Torquato; and when he arrived, the graces and accomplishments of the boy so pleased the Duke, that he appointed him the companion of his own son in his studies. They remained at the court of Urbino for two years, when, in 1559, the changing fortunes of Bernardo drew them from thence to Venice. This unsettled life, however, had never interrupted the youthful studies of Tasso; and after they had resided for some time at Venice, his father sent him to the University of Padua, in the intention that he should prepare himself for the profession of the law. But all views of this kind were soon abandoned by the young poet. Instead of perusing Justinian he spent his time in writing verses; and the result was the publication of his poem of Rinaldo before he had completed his eighteenth year. We cannot here trace minutely the remaining progress of his shifting and agitated history. His literary industry in the midst of almost ceaseless distractions of all kinds was most extraordinary. His great poem, the *Jerusalem Delivered*, is said to have been begun in his nineteenth year, when he was at Bologna. In 1565 he first visited the court of Ferrara, having been carried thither by the Cardinal Luigi d'Este, the brother of the reigning duke Alphonso. This event gave a color to the whole of Tasso's future existence. It has been supposed that the young poet allowed himself to form an attachment to the princess Leonora, one of the two sisters of the Duke, and that the object of his aspiring love was not insensible to that union of eminent personal graces with the fascinations of genius which courted her regard. But there hangs a mystery over the story which has never been completely cleared away. What is certain is, that, with the exception of a visit which he paid to Paris in 1571, in the train of the Cardinal Luigi, Tasso continued to reside at Ferrara, till the completion and publication of his celebrated epic in 1575. He had already given to the world his beautiful pastoral drama the *Aminta*, the next best known and most esteemed of his productions.

From this period his life becomes a long course of storm and darkness, rarely relieved even by a fitful gleam of light. For several years the great poet, whose fame was already spread over Europe, seems to have wandered from city to city in his native country, in a state almost of beggary, impelled by a restlessness of spirit which no change of scene would relieve. But Ferrara was still the central spot around which his affections hovered, and to which, apparently in spite of himself, he constantly after a brief interval returned. In this state of mind much of his conduct was probably extravagant enough; but it is hardly to be believed that he really gave any cause for the harsh, and, if unmerited, most atrocious measure to which his former patron and friend, the Duke Alphonso, resorted in 1579, of consigning him as a lunatic to the Hospital of St. Anne. In this receptacle of wretchedness the poet was confined for above seven years. The princess Leonora, who has been supposed to have been the innocent cause of his detention, died in 1581; but neither this event, nor the solicitations of several of his most powerful friends and admirers, could prevail upon Alphonso to grant Tasso his liberty. Meanwhile the alleged lunatic occupied and no doubt lightened, many of his hours by the exercise of his pen. His compositions were numerous, both in prose and verse, and many of them found their way to the press. At last, in July, 1586, on

the earnest application of Don Vincenzo Gonzaga, son of the Duke of Mantua, he was released from his long imprisonment. He spent the close of that year at Mantua; but he then resumed his wandering habits, and, although he never again visited Ferrara, his old disposition to flit about from place to place seems to have clung to him like a disease. In this singular mode of existence he met with the strangest vicissitudes of fortune. One day he would be the most conspicuous object at a splendid court, crowned with lavish honors by the prince, and basking in the admiration of all beholders; another, he would be travelling alone on the highway, with weary steps and empty purse, and reduced to the necessity of borrowing, or rather begging, by the humblest suit, the means of sustaining existence. Such was his life for six or seven years. At last, in November, 1594, he made his appearance at Rome. It was resolved that the greatest living poet of Italy should be crowned with the laurel in the imperial city, as Petrarch had been more than two hundred and fifty years before. The decree to that effect was passed by the Pope and the Senate; but ere the day of triumph came, Tasso was seized with an illness, which he instantly felt would be mortal. At his own request, he was conveyed to the neighboring monastery of St. Onofrio, the same retreat in which, twenty years before, his father had breathed his last; and here, surrounded by the consolations of that faith, which had been through life his constant support, he patiently awaited what he firmly believed would be the issue of his malady. He expired in the arms of Cardinal Cinthio Aldobrandini, on the 25th of April, 1595, having just entered upon his fifty-second year. The Cardinal had brought him the Pope's benediction, on receiving which he exclaimed, "This is the crown with which I hope to be crowned, not as a poet in the Capitol, but with the glory of the blessed in heaven."

DAVID HUME AND HIS MOTHER.

Hume, the historian, received a religious education from his mother, and, early in life, was the subject of strong and hopeful religious impressions; but, as he approached manhood, they were effaced, and confirmed infidelity succeeded. Maternal partiality, however alarmed at first, came at length to look with less and less pain upon this declension, and filial love and reverence seem to have been absorbed in the pride of philosophical skepticism; for Hume now applied himself with unwearied, and, unhappily, with successful efforts, to sap the foundation of his mother's faith. Having succeeded in this dreadful work, he went abroad into foreign countries; and as he was returning, an express met him in London, with a letter from his mother, informing him that she was in a deep decline, and could not long survive; she said she found herself without any support in her distress; that he had taken away that source of comfort upon which, in all cases of affliction, she used to rely, and that she now found her mind sinking into despair: she did not doubt that her son would afford her some substitute for her religion; and she conjured him to hasten to her, or at least to send her a letter, containing such consolations as philosophy can afford to a dying mortal. Hume was overwhelmed with anguish on receiving this letter, and hastened to Scotland, travelling day and night; but before he arrived his mother expired.

No permanent impression seems, however, to have been made on his mind by this most trying event; and whatever remorse he might have felt at the moment, he soon relapsed into his wonted obduracy of heart.—SILLIMAN'S *Travels in England*. A story like this requires no comment. Thus it is that false philosophy restores the sting to death, and gives again the victory to the grave!

A *Tornado* passed over the town of St. Louis on the evening of the 26th June, which prostrated 20 or 30 houses and damaged many more. But one life was lost as far as is known.

CLEVER WOMEN.

There is an unaccountable antipathy to clever women. Almost all men profess to be afraid of blue stockings—that is, of women who have cultivated their minds; and hold up as a maxim, that there is no safety in matrimony, or even in the ordinary intercourse of society, except with females of plain understandings. The general idea seems to be, that a dull ordinary woman, or even a fool, is more easily managed than a woman of spirit and sense, and that the acquirements of the husband ought never to be obviously inferior to those of his wife. If these propositions were true, there would be some show of reason for avoiding clever women. But I am afraid they rest on no good grounds. Hardly any kind of fool can be so easily managed, as a person of even first-rate intellect; while the most of the species are much more untractable. A dull fool is sure to be obstinate—obstinate in error as well as in propriety; so that the husband is every day provoked to find that she wilfully withholds him from acting rightly in the most trifling, and perhaps also the most important, things. Then the volatile fool is full of whim and caprice, and utterly defies every attempt that may be made by her husband to guide her aright. In the one case, his life is embittered for days, perhaps, by the sulkiness of his partner; in the other, he is chagrined by the fatal consequences of her levity. Are these results so much to be desired, that a man should marry beneath the rank of his own understanding, in order to secure them? I rather apprehend that cowardice in this case, as in most others, is only the readiest way to danger. As for the rest of the argument, I would be far from saying, that to marry a woman much superior to one's self in intellect, is a direct way to happiness. I must insist, however, that there is more safety for a man of well-regulated feelings, in the partnership of a superior than of an inferior woman. In the former case, I verily believe, his own understanding is likely to be more highly estimated than in the other. In the first place, he is allowed the credit of having had the sense at least to choose a good wife. In the second, he has counsel and example always at hand, for the improvement of his own appearances before society. The very superiority, however, of his wife, ensures that she will be above showing off to the disadvantage of her husband: she will rather seek to conceal his faults, and supply his deficiencies, for her own credit. Now, what sense a fool has, she must always show it, even though sure to excite ridicule from its being so little.

THE HERMIT AND THE VISION.

It is told of a religious recluse, who, in the early ages of Christianity, betook himself to a cave in Upper Egypt, which, in the times of the Pharaohs, had been a depository for mummies, that he prayed there, morning, noon, and night, eating only of the dates which some neighboring trees afforded, and drinking of the water of the Nile. At length, the hermit became weary of life, and then he prayed still more earnestly.

After this duty, one day he fell asleep, and the vision of an angel appeared to him in a dream, commanding him to arise, and cut down a neighboring palm-tree, and make a rope of its fibres, and, after it was done, the angel would appear to him again. The hermit awoke, and instantly applied himself to obey the vision.

He travelled about, from place to place, many days before he could procure an axe; and during this journey, he felt happier than he had been for many years. His prayers were now short and few; but what they wanted in length and number, they out-measured in fervency.

Having returned with the axe, he cut down the tree; and, with much labor and assiduity during several days, prepared the fibres to make the rope; and, after a continuance of daily occupation for some weeks, completed the command.

The vision that night appeared to the hermit, as promised, and thus addressed him: "You are now no longer weary of life, but happy. Know then, that man was made for labor; and prayer also is his duty: the one as well as the other is essential to his well-being. Arise in the morning, take the cord, and with it gird up thy loins, and go forth into the world; and let it be a memorial to thee, of what God expects from man, if he would be blessed with happiness on earth."

At an assembly a gentleman entered into conversation with a young nobleman who was near him. Being a stranger, he made several inquiries respecting the company, which were answered with great politeness. At length he said, "Who is that fat sow at the other end of the room?" "That, Sir," replied the young nobleman, "that fat sow is the Countess of B——, and I have the honor to be one of her little pigs."—(In the danger of Personalities in Company—from "Instructions in Etiquette.")

The Morning Air.—There is something in the morning air, that while it defies the penetration of our proud and shallow philosophy, adds brightness to the blood, freshness to life, and vigor to the whole frame; the freshness of the lip, by the way, is, according to Dr. Marshall Hall, one of the surest marks of health. If ye would be well, therefore, if ye would have your heart dancing gladly like the April breeze, and your blood flowing like an April brook, up with the lark—"the merry lark," as Shakespeare calls it, which is "the ploughman's clock," to warn him of the dawn; up and breakfast on the morning air—fresh with the odor of budding flowers, and all the fragrance of the maiden spring; up from your nerve-destroying down bed, and from the foul air pent within your close-drawn curtains, and with the sun "walk o'er the dew of the far eastern hills." But we must defend the morning air from the aspersions of those who sit in their close airless studies, and talk of the chilling dew, and the unwholesome damps of the dawn: we have all the facts in our favor, that the fresh air of the morning is uniformly wholesome; and, having the facts, we pitch such shallow philosophy to fools who have nothing else for a foot-ball.

The Bible.—Sir W. Jones, a most accomplished scholar, who had made himself acquainted with eight and twenty languages, has left it on record, that amidst all his pursuits the study of the Sacred Volume had been his constant habit. Sir Isaac Newton, the greatest of mathematicians, was a diligent student of the Bible. Mr. Locke, a man of distinguished acuteness in the study of the human mind, wrote to recommend the study of the New Testament; as having "God for its author, salvation for its end, and truth unmingled with error, for its matter." Milton, the greatest of poets, evidently had his mind most deeply imbued with the study of the word of God. Boerhaave, eminent as a natural philosopher, spent the first hour of every day in meditation on the sacred pages. Here no man can say that he has not leisure. A most beneficent institution of our Creator has given us, for this duty, a seventh part of our time, one day in every week, one whole year out of every seven.

VARIETIES.

The ceremony of laying the corner stone of the Capitol of North Carolina, took place on the 4th day of July, when in conformity to the call of the citizens of Raleigh, delegates from nineteen counties attended for the purpose of devising and agreeing upon some plan of Internal Improvements to save the State from total ruin.

A large party of the Oneida Indians, under the charge of the agent, Mr. Savage, left Buffalo a few weeks since for Green Bay, in the schooner Globe. They numbered in all, men, women and children, 145—were well provided with every thing necessary to render them comfortable in their new habitation, and seemed happy in the prospect before them.

The *Siamese Twins* have been getting into difficulty at the West, being tried in Trumbull county, Ohio, for an assault and battery committed on an old and respectable citizen. The defendants pleaded guilty, and were each fined five dollars and cost.

The account from Mexico gives intelligence of a recent attempt to revolutionize that country. General Santa Anna was captured, but made his escape. The movement is said to have been produced by those, who are opposed to any encroachments upon the Catholic religion.

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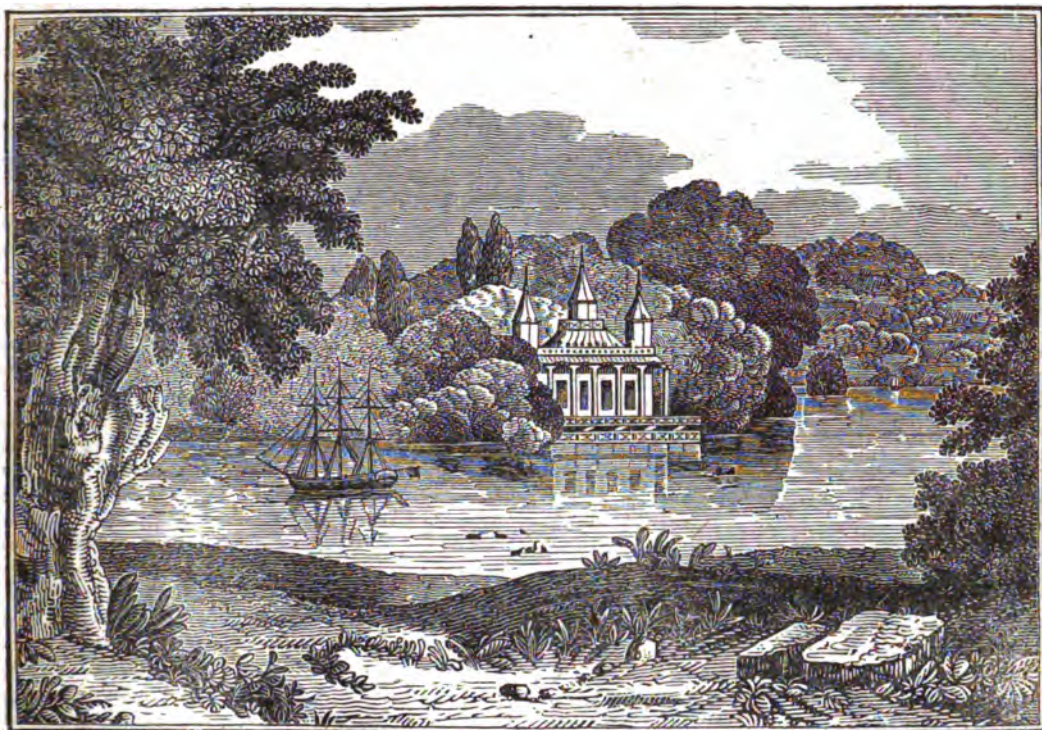
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Vol. I.



VIRGINIA WATER.

This engraving represents a beautiful spot near Windsor in England, known under the name of Virginia Water. The lake is the largest piece of artificial water in the kingdom; if artificial it can be called—for the hand of man has done little more than turn the small streams of the district into a natural basin. The grounds are several miles in extent; although so perfectly secluded that a traveller might pass on the high road without being aware that he was near any object that could gratify his curiosity. They are now covered with magnificent timber, originally planted with regard to the grandest effects of what is called landscape gardening. By the permission of the king, Virginia Water is open to all persons.

The scenery in the neighborhood of this place is bold and rugged. A scene of great beauty bursts upon the view on approaching the margin of the lake. A verdant walk bounded by the choicest evergreens leads by the side of a magnificent breadth of water. The opposite shore is covered with heath; and plantations of the most graceful trees—the larch, the ash, and the weeping birch, ("the lady of the woods,") break the line of the more distant hills. The boundary of the lake is every where most judiciously concealed; and the imagination cannot refrain from believing that some great river lies beyond that screening wood. Every now and then the road winds through some close walk of pines and laurels, where the rabbit and squirrel run with scarcely a fear of man.

But we again find ourselves upon the margin of the lake, which increases in breadth as we approach

its head. At the point where it is widest, a fishing temple was erected by George IV.; which, as seen from the shore we are describing, is represented in the wood-cut at the head of this article. — We have abridged this account from the English Penny Magazine, to which journal we are also indebted for the very neat wood-cut presented to our readers.

PRINTING AND STEREOTYPING.

The art of printing is one of the most extraordinary results of human ingenuity, and is certainly the very noblest of all the known handicrafts. Yet, important as it is acknowledged to be, three centuries elapsed from the date of the invention before it was perfected in many of its most necessary details. At first, the art was entirely in the hands of learned men, the greatest scholars often glorying in affixing their names to the works as correctors of the press, and giving names to the various parts of the mechanism of the printing office, as is testified by the classical technicalities still in use among the workmen. It was formerly mentioned that Guttenburgh the inventor, did not go the length of casting types from moulds: that great improvement is said to have been effected by Peter Schœffer, the companion of Faust; and from that event till the invention of italic letters by Aldus Manutius, to whom learning is much indebted, no other improvement took place. It does not appear that mechanical ingenuity was at any time directed to the improvement of the presses, or any other

parts of the machinery used in printing, and the consequence was that till far on in the eighteenth century, the clumsy instruments of Guttenburgh, Faust, and Caxton, continued in universal use. The presses were composed of wood and iron, and were slow and heavy in working, while the ink continued to be applied by two stuffed balls or cushions, at a great expense of time and trouble.

At length, an almost entire revolution was effected in the printing office, both in the appearance of the typography and the working of the presses. About the same period, the art of stereotyping was discovered, and developed a completely new feature in the invention of printing. One of the chief improvements in the typography was the discarding of the long s, and every description of contractions, and, at the same time, the cutting of the letters was done with greater neatness and regularity. Among the first improvers of the printing press, the most honorable place may be given to the Earl of Stanhope, a nobleman remembered for his mechanical genius, who applied certain lever powers to the screw and handle of the old press, thereby diminishing the labor of the operative, and producing finer work. Since the beginning of the present century, and more specially within the last twenty years, presses wholly composed of iron, on the nicest scientific principles, have been invented by different men of mechanical genius in Great Britain and America, so as to simplify the process of printing in an extraordinary degree; and the invention of presses composed of cylinders, and wrought by steam power, has triumphantly crowned the improvements in the art. The introduction of steam presses has been furthered by another invention of an accessory nature, now of great value to the printer. Allusion is here made to the invention of the roller, for applying the ink, instead of the old unwieldy and insufficient balls. The roller, which is a composition of a glutinous nature, cast upon a wooden centre piece, was invented by a journeyman printer in Edinburgh, and was so much appreciated, as at once to spread over the whole of Britain and the United States.

It is our chief object, in this sketch, to give a brief explanation of the process of stereotyping—a process without the aid of which the present, as well as many other works, could not be so extensively nor so cheaply circulated through the country. Stereotyping seems to have been invented simultaneously by different persons in various parts of England and Scotland during the last century. When properly made known, it was hailed with acclamation by the printing and publishing world, but, as experience developed its powers, it was found to be strictly applicable only to a particular kind of work. In putting up types, they are lifted one by one, and built into a little case held in the hand of the compositor, who, by the accumulation of handfuls, makes up a page, and lays it, with the face uppermost, on a table. After being wedged at the foot and side into an iron frame, and corrected, the page is carried to the press for working, and when the whole of the impression is off, it is brought back to the table, and the types distributed into their places. When the page has to be stereotyped, the same process of putting up is gone through, but, instead of being carried to the press, the page is plastered over with liquid stucco to the thickness of about half an inch, so that a level cake is formed on the surface of the types. As soon as

the stucco hardens, which it does almost immediately, the cake is separated from the types, and, on being turned up, shows a complete hollow or mould-like representation of the faces of the types and every thing else in the page. There being no longer any use for the types, they are carried off and distributed. As for the cake, it is put into an oven and baked to a certain degree of heat and hardness, like a piece of pottery. It is next laid in a square iron pan, having a lid of the same metal, with holes at the corners. The pan is now immersed in a pot of molten lead, and being allowed to fill by means of the holes, it is at length taker out and put aside till it cool. On opening the pan, a curious appearance is presented. The lead has run into the mould side of the cake, and formed a thin plate all over, exhibiting the perfect appearance of the faces of the types on which the stucco was plastered. Thus is procured a fictitious page of types, not thicker than the sixth of an inch, and which can be printed from in the same manner as in the case of a real page. Such is the process of stereotyping, or making *fixed* or *stationary* types;—and now for the utility of the invention.

In all cases of common book work it is best to print from types to the amount of the copies required, and then distribute the types; but in most cases of books published in parts, sheets, or numbers, stereotyping becomes absolutely necessary. It is easy to perceive the reason for this. When books are published in numbers, it often happens that many more copies are sold of one number than of another, and unless the types be kept up to complete sets in the hands of the publisher, or to print copies according to the increased demand, a serious loss is sustained. The manufacture of stereotype plates is, therefore, simply a means of keeping up fictitious types to answer future demands, at an expense infinitely inferior to that of keeping the actual pages standing.

THE HAVANA SHARK.

From Chamber's Edinburgh Journal.

Subsequent to the disastrous attack on the American lines before New Orleans, on the 8th of January 1815, the British army proceeded to Isle Dauphine, in the Gulf of Mexico, where the troops remained until peace was concluded between Great Britain and the United States. As the men had been for several months exposed to severe hardships and many privations, the fleet was ordered, on its way home, to put into different ports, for the purpose of procuring fresh meat and vegetables. The ship I was on board of, with the regiment which I then commanded, belonged to that part of the fleet which touched at the Havana. The circumstance I am about to relate is the capture of an enormous shark, which created considerable interest at the time. On arriving at the Havana, I obtained leave from the general officer commanding, to live on shore, for the purpose of seeing something of the island. I generally went on board every morning about 10 o'clock, to give the necessary orders for the regiment. Several of our men had died during the passage to Havana, and were consigned to the deep in the harbor of that place. One morning when I was writing in the cabin, I heard a sudden running of the men upon deck towards the afterpart of the vessel, and a serjeant called to me from above to come on deck

immediately. Not being exactly aware of what was going on, I drew my sabre, and ran on deck without my cap. I was received with a good laugh by the officers present, and very soon was made aware of the object of the men's curiosity. It was a sight I never can forget. One of our poor fellows had been thrown overboard in the morning, sewed up in his blanket, with a shot inside to sink him. By some accident, the sewing must have been loosened, and, consequently, the body floated; and, just as I came on deck, two enormous sharks made a dash at the body, divided it in two, and disappeared with their spoil. A feeling of horror ran through every spectator. At that instant, a third shark showed himself close to our vessel. I called



to the men to keep him alongside, by throwing him pieces of biscuit, at the same time desiring one of them to bring me a musket; on getting which, I fired at the animal, and the men shouted out that the ball had gone clean through him. He gave a flap with his tail, and went down, leaving the water slightly tinged with blood. At this moment, the black who beat the large drum came aft, and said to me, "Major, if you give me leave, I kill him and eat him in five minutes." I told him he should have five dollars for his pains if he kept his word. He immediately produced a shark-hook, baited it with a piece of pork, and, having fastened it to a strong line, threw it high into the air, and let it fall with a splash into the water. The effect was magical. Quick as lightning, two of the sharks were seen making towards the bait, and, in an instant, one of them swallowed it. "Now is the time, grenadier," cried blackie; "clap on the rope-line, and give him plenty o' play." Away went the monster like a whale, but *our Othello's* "occupation was not gone," and he commanded the grenadier, like an experienced general, until his enemy was lying spent and powerless on the surface of the water. A boat was now lowered, and the animal having been hauled alongside, a noose was made on a very thick rope, and he was swung into the air amidst the cheers of the whole fleet, every yard having been manned to witness our proceeding. The tail having been cut, the shark was laid on the deck, and blackie having selected a delicate piece from the shoulder, immediately proceeded to fulfil the latter part of his bargain, by broiling and eating it. The shark measured eleven feet in length, and seven feet across. The liver weighed seventy-three pounds. In the upper jaw were five rows of teeth, and in the under, six rows. I had the satisfaction to see that my aim had been good, as the mark of the ball was about two inches below the dorsal fin, and had gone "clean through," as the men said. Notwithstanding this wound, the voracious creature had returned to the charge within five minutes. The shark was a female, and had nineteen young ones in her belly when opened. They measured

about eighteen inches each. During the time she was alongside, I (as well as two hundred others) had an opportunity of observing the young ones passing in and out of the mother's mouth; they seemed to take refuge there on the least appearance of danger. This fact, I believe, has been doubted by some naturalists. The jaw of this animal is now at Abbotsford, having been sent to the late lamented Sir Walter Scott, by the writer of this account. On the afternoon of the same day, after I had left the ship, the men caught another of the gang, rather longer than the first, and a bullock's hide and horns were found in the stomach. The horns were preserved by the surgeon of the regiment, and appeared, when taken out of the shark, to be quite soft and pulpy.

To account for this rather singular part of the story, I ought to mention that the captain of the vessel had hung several bullock hides on the rigging of the ship, which, producing a bad smell, I ordered them to be thrown overboard on the morning of the day on which the two sharks were killed.

But the most amusing part of the transaction was, that a complaint was made against me by the *authorities* of the place, for having destroyed two of the "guardians of their harbor." By this, I suppose, they meant, that these large sharks, playing about the mouth of the harbor, prevented a great fry of smaller ones from entering. They certainly were entitled to be considered in something like the light of "Tritons among the minnows."

POPULAR INFORMATION ON SCIENCE.

NO. I. ATTRACTION.

The word attraction is employed to denote that power or force by which all kinds of matter, whether of the size of atoms or of worlds, are drawn towards each other. There is, perhaps, no law of nature which produces phenomena so universally and continually presented to our observation, as attraction. If we lift our eyes to the starry heavens, and observe the motion, or, as Milton terms it, the "mystic dance" of these shining orbs, we find it, like an invisible rein, curbing them in their amazing journeys through the trackless ether, and compelling them to deviate from the rectilinear or straightforward course in which they would otherwise run, and wheel in a circular manner round some other body, the centre of their orbits of motion. Or if we turn our attention to the globe we inhabit, we find it drawing down to the earth again the stone which we have thrown into the air, or we see it forming into a globule the little drop of dew which hangs like an appropriate gem upon the delicate leaf of a flower. Or we see two contiguous drops upon the same spray, when brought near to each other, but still situated at a distance sufficient to be discerned by the eye, at last suddenly rush together and become one. Or we can detect its operations in uniting a few simple substances in various proportions, and producing the wonders of vegetable organization in infinite variety and never failing symmetry! How sublime, yet how simple; how minute, yet how comprehensive and magnificent is this law!—at once exercising a power over the smallest atoms around us, while at the same time it is determining the revolutions of the gigantic and innumerable orbs that roll throughout the universe;

a height and a depth, a breadth and a length of existence, which imagination in vain attempts to picture, or reason to calculate.

"That very law which moulds a tear
And bids it trickle from its source,
That law preserves the earth a sphere,
And guides the planets in their course."—ROGERS

This law is indispensable for the preservation and existence of the present order of things; and it would not be difficult to show, that the suspension of it, even with respect to a single star, would, in course of time, spread disorder and anarchy throughout the universe. But its invariable operation is the certainty of destiny. Without this unchangeableness, philosophy would be only a doctrine of chances; but eclipses for thousands of years to come, for instance (supposing our world were to remain as it is for that period,) can be calculated upon without fear of error, almost to the beat of the stop-watch!

The subject of attraction naturally separates itself into two grand divisions. There is, first, the attraction which is exercised by masses of matter, situated at sensible distances from each other; and, secondly, the attraction existing amongst the atoms constituting these masses, which takes place at insensible distances. These two heads are again subdivided, the former into the attractions of gravitation, electricity, and magnetism; and the latter into those of aggregation or cohesion; and chemical attraction or affinity. Many philosophers have supposed, and with some degree of plausibility, that all these varieties depend upon some ultimate power of matter, and may thus be reduced into one; yet as no conclusive argument has been adduced in support of the hypothesis, it is unnecessary to trouble the reader with speculative theories, even allowing that they are probably correct.

By gravitation is meant that power which draws the objects of the universe towards each other. The sublime genius of Newton, it is said, conceived the idea of universal attraction from the simple incident of an apple falling from a tree in his garden. May not, he reasoned, the power which draws this apple to the ground with unerring certainty, be the same as that which regulates the movements of the celestial systems. And so, following up this idea, he made a series of discoveries the most brilliant that ever adorned the annals of philosophy. He proved satisfactorily that what we term *weight* is nothing more than an instance of universal attraction, which decreases in intensity as we recede from the earth in distance. This, of course, suggested the idea that weight must be less on the tops of mountains, and in balloons, than at the sea shore, or on plains, which is the fact. What weighs 1000 lb. at the sea-shore, weighs five lbs. less at the top of mountains of a certain height, as is proved experimentally by a spring balance; and, at the distance of the moon, the weight or attraction towards the earth of 1000 lbs. is diminished to five ounces. This has been proved by astronomical tests.

Mental Physic.—I look to tranquillity of mind and patience, to contribute as much as any thing whatever to the curing diseases. On this principle I account for the circumstance of animals not laboring under illness so long as human beings. Brutes do not think so much as we, nor vex themselves about futurity; but endure their maladies without reflecting on them, and recover from them by the sole means of temperance and repose.—*Sorbiere*, an eminent French physician.



DEXTERITY OF A GOAT.

A correspondent informs us, that when in India, he was often amused by a juggler who came under the windows with a goat and a basket of blocks, one inch square, but very accurately levelled. Placing the four feet of the goat closely together on one block, he added others under, in succession, till the goat was mounted in the air to the second story! The animal was small and well tutored—but even then it always seemed a most remarkable feat.

Dr. Clarke in his *Travels* describes a similar exhibition. "Upon our road from Jerusalem to Bethlehem," says this writer, we met an Arab with a goat, which he led about the country for exhibition, in order to gain a livelihood for itself and owner. He had taught this animal, while he accompanied its movements with a song, to mount upon little cylindrical blocks of wood, placed successively one above the other, and in shape resembling the dice-boxes belonging to a backgammon table. In this manner the goat stood, first upon the top of one cylinder, then upon the top of two, and afterwards of three, four, five and six, until it remained balanced upon the top of them all, elevated several feet from the ground, and with its four feet collected upon a single point without throwing down the disjointed fabric upon which it stood. The practice is very ancient. Nothing can show more strikingly the tenacious footing possessed by this quadruped upon the jutting points and crags of rocks; and the circumstance of its ability to remain thus poised may render its appearance less surprising, as it is sometimes seen in the Alps, and in all mountainous countries, with hardly any place for its feet, upon the sides and by the brink of most tremendous precipices. The diameter of the upper cylinder, on which its feet ultimately remained until the Arab had ended his ditty, was only two inches, and the length of each cylinder was six inches."

SONNET.

There is no remedy for time mispent,
No healing for the waste of idleness,
Whose very languor is a punishment—
Heavier than active souls can feel or guess,
Oh! hours of indolence and discontent,
Not now to be redeemed! ye sting not less,
Because I know this span of life was lent—
For lofty duties, not for selfishness.
Not to be whiled away in aimless dreams,
But to improve ourselves and serve mankind,
Life and its choicest faculties were given
Man should be ever better than he seems—
And shape his acts, and discipline his mind
To walk adorning earth, deserving heaven



THE GREAT AMERICAN ALOE.

(*Agave Americana.*)

The flowering of this plant used to be considered as a very rare occurrence, and as not taking place till it attained the age of one hundred years; but the specimens being now numerous the delay in flowering is found not to be fact. Its interest as a marvel has, consequently, fallen off; but the uses of the plant still continue.

The agave bears some resemblance to the pineapple in its leaves, only they are thicker, stiffer, and less numerous; but it produces no edible fruit. The outside leaves stand round in a star, or crown; and the middle consists of a thick spire of leaves, so firmly twisted together, that the edges of the one impress the others with a seal. The points are armed with very strong spines; so that the plant is truly formidable, and answers well for hedges, only it occupies considerable breadth.

The scape, or flowering-stem, rises from the centre of the tuft of leaves; it is smooth and green, and the branches that bear the individual clusters of flowers come off very gracefully in double curves, which have the bend downward near the stalk, and upward near the flowers. The appearance is not unlike that of a majestic candlestick, with successive branches, for a great portion of its height; and tall as the stem is, the form of the leaves gives it the appearance of great stability. The plant is a native of tropical America but it abounds in the dry and warm places of the south of Europe, along the sandy shores of the Mediterranean, and especially in the south of Portugal, and in the dry districts on the confines of Portugal and Spain.

Like most plants which grow in very hot and dry places, the rind or epidermis of the leaves resists powerfully the action of heat, so that the interior of the leaves is very juicy. The juice contains a good deal both of alkali and oil (the ingredients of which soap is composed,) so that in some places of the peninsula, it is used as a substitute for soap; the pulp forming a lather with water. Cattle are also fed on the sliced or bruised leaves, at those seasons when the pastures are burnt up by the drought. So that it is a useful plant even in those parts of

Europe where the vegetation of more temperate climes is apt to fail.

In Mexico, it is far more useful; and is, indeed, one of the most valuable products of the soil, answering some of the purposes which are answered by rye in the north of Europe, barley in the middle latitudes, and the vine toward the south. The wines and spirits of the country are prepared from it; and though their flavor is not much relished by Europeans, they are in high estimation with the natives.

When the leaves have come to their full size, and the flower stalk is about to spring up, the heart of the plant is scooped out, and the outside left in the form of a cup. That cup soon fills with the juice, which is removed successively, till no more can be obtained; and the remaining leaves, as well as those that are cut out, are dried for fuel. The juice is set to ferment; and when it has undergone that process, it is the *Pulqué*, or Mexican beer. It soon gets acid, and even rancid, from the quantity of oil; but the natives relish it. When recently made, it is said to be much more palatable; and probably it does not become unpleasant sooner than the weak and imperfectly fined malt liquors of this country do in the hot season.

The juice of the Agave is also distilled into an ardent and intoxicating spirit, called *Mercal*, or *Vino Mercal*, in which the inconsiderate indulge to the same excess as they do in spirits from grain, potatoes, beet-root, and other vegetables in Europe. The people of all countries are too fond of preparing such beverages; and the natives of India lay the palm trees under contribution for their *arrack*; and the hemp, for that still more intoxicating and pernicious liquid which they call *Bang*.

The fibres of the Agave are tough and straight; and they are sometimes used as cords; but the proper cordage of the tropical Americans is not made from them; but from the fibres of some of the wild *Bromelias*; or from the *coire*, or fibres, which surround the shell of the cocoa-nut.

THE VALLEY OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

On the Continent of America the works of nature are on a great and extensive scale; and in estimating their magnitude, the mind is actually lost in wonder. "When we think of the valley of any river in this country," says an English writer "we have only in view a district of ground measuring at most a hundred miles in length by less than the third of that extent in breadth; but in speaking of the valleys in America, we are called on to remember that they sometimes include a territory far more extensive than the whole island of Britain." The chief wonder of this description in North America is the valley of the Mississippi, which is the natural drain of the central part of this vast continent, and embraces all that tract of country of which the waters are discharged into the Gulf of Mexico. It is bounded on the north by an elevated country, which divides it from the waters that flow into Hudson's Bay, and the northern lakes and St. Lawrence; on the east by the table land from whence descend the waters that fall into the Atlantic; and on the west by the Rocky, or Chippewau Mountains, which separate the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Pacific.

This great central vale of America is considered the largest division of the globe, of which the waters pass into one estuary. It extends from the 29th to

the 49th degree of north latitude, or about 1400 miles from south to north, while the breadth across is about the same dimensions. To suppose the United States and its territory to be divided into three portions, the arrangement would be—the Atlantic slope, the Mississippi basin or valley, and the Pacific slope. A glance on any map of North America will show that this valley includes about two-thirds of the territory of the United States. The Atlantic slope contains 390,000, the Pacific slope about 300,000, which, combined, are 690,000 square miles; while the valley of the Mississippi contains at least 1,300,000 square miles, or four times as much land as the whole of England. This great vale is divided into two portions, the Upper and Lower Valley, distinguished by particular features, and separated by an imaginary intersecting line at the place where the Ohio pours its waters into the Mississippi. This large river has many tributaries of first rate proportions besides the Ohio. The chief is the Missouri, which indeed is the main stream, for it is not only longer and larger, but drains a greater extent of country. Its length is computed at 1870 miles, and upon a particular course 3000 miles. In its appearance it is turbid, violent, and rapid, while the Mississippi, above its junction with the Missouri, is clear, with a gentle current. At St. Charles, 20 miles from its entrance into the Mississippi, the Missouri measures from five to six hundred yards across, though its depth is only a few fathoms.

The Mississippi Proper takes its rise in Cedar Lake, in the 47th degree of north latitude. From this to the Falls of St. Anthony, a distance of five hundred miles, it runs in a devious course, first southeast, then southwest, and, finally, southeast again; which last it continues, without much deviation, till it reaches the Missouri, the waters of which strike it at right angles, and throw the current of the Mississippi entirely upon the eastern side. The prominent branch of the Upper Mississippi is the St. Peter's, which rises in the great prairies in the northwest, and enters the parent stream a little below the Falls of St. Anthony. The Kaskaskia next joins it, after a course of 200 miles. In the 36th degree of north latitude, the Ohio (formed by the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela) pours in its tribute, after pursuing a course of 750 miles, and draining about 200,000 square miles of country. A little below the 34th degree the White River enters, after a course of more than 1000 miles. Thirty miles below that, the Arkansas, bringing in its tribute from the confines of Mexico, pours in its waters. Its last great tributary is Red River, a stream taking its rise in the Mexican dominions, and flowing a course of more than 2000 miles.

Hitherto the waters in the wide regions of the west have been congregating to one point. The "Father of Waters" is now upwards of a mile in width, and several fathoms deep. During its annual floods it overflows its banks below the mouth of the Ohio, and sometimes extends thirty and forty miles into the interior, laying the prairies, bottoms, swamps, and other low grounds under water for a season. After receiving Red River, this vast stream is unable to continue in one channel; it parts into separate courses, and, like the Nile, finds its way to the ocean at different and distant points.

The capabilities of the Mississippi for purposes of trade are almost beyond calculation, and are hardly yet developed. For thousands of years this

magnificent American river rolled its placid and undisturbed waters amidst widely-spreading forests, rich green prairies, and swelling mountain scenery, ornamented with the ever-varying tints of nature in its wildest mood, unnoticed save by the wandering savage of the west, or the animals which browse upon its banks. At length it came under the observation of civilized men, and now has begun to contribute to their wants and wishes. Every part of the vast region irrigated by the main stream and its tributaries can be penetrated by steam-boats and other water craft; nor is there a spot in all this wide territory, excepting a small district in the plains of Upper Missouri, that is more than one hundred miles from some navigable water. A boat may take in its lading on the banks of the Chataque Lake, in the state of New York—another may receive its cargo in the interior of Virginia—a third may start from the Rice Lakes at the head of the Mississippi—and a fourth may come laden with furs from the Chippewau Mountains, 2800 miles up the Missouri—and all meet at the mouth of the Ohio, and proceed in company to the ocean.

Within the last twenty-four years, the Mississippi, with the Ohio, and its other large tributaries, have been covered with steam-boats and barges of every kind, and populous cities have sprung up on their banks. There are now sea-ports at the centre of the American continent—trading towns, each already doing more business than some half dozen celebrated ports in the Old World, with all the protection which restrictive enactments and traditional importance can confer upon them.

The valley of the Mississippi, one of the greatest natural wonders of the world, will one day possess and comfortably sustain a population nearly as great as that of all Europe. Let its inhabitants become equally dense with England, including Wales, which contains 207 to the square mile, and its numbers will amount to 179,400,000. But let it become equal to the Netherlands—which its fertility would warrant—and its surface will sustain a population of two hundred millions. What reflections ought this view to present to the philanthropist and the Christian!

ANECDOTE OF DR. ADAM CLARKE.

The following singular narrative was given by Dr. Clarke at the conclusion of a sermon recently preached by him on behalf of the Royal Humane Society, and is extracted from the *Wesleyan Preacher*.—"Now, my dear hearers, I wish you to prepare yourselves for a story that will make you, perhaps, feel a little, and feel so much as will cause you to give some glory to God. I said I was acquainted with some of the principal originators of this Society, and I need not say I was well acquainted with Dr. Letson, and I will relate the story as given to that good man.—'Doctor,' said I, 'you have been very much conversant with every thing respecting the Royal Humane Society. You have been now long engaged in that work, and you and your friends have been principally active in carrying on its provisions and plans and management, and dispersing its blessings throughout the land. Pray, what does your experience, Doctor, teach you respecting the state of those that evidently have been dead, and would have continued under the power of death, had it not been for the means prescribed by the Royal Humane Society. Have you ever found any that were conscious of the state

into which they were departed?" "I have never found one," said he. "Not of all those that have been revived, to your own knowledge, that were dead to all human appearance, where the heart has ceased its pulsation, the lungs no longer played, the blood no longer circulated, and there was every evidence that the person was finally deceased?" He again answered, "No." "Doctor," continued I, "I have not been so long conversant with these matters as you have been; but my experience in things of that kind has led me to different information. I knew a person that was drowned; and that person to my own knowledge, had a perfect consciousness during the interim, and also declared many things concerning the state through which he passed." "But was the person really dead?" said the Doctor. "Yes," said I, "completely drowned. I have no doubt of it whatever." "Had you the testimony from himself?" he inquired. "I had, sir." "Could you trust in him?" "Most perfectly." And then, assuming an attitude he was accustomed to assume when making anxious inquiry respecting any thing he said—"I should wish to have had the examination of that person." I looked him steadfastly in the face, and said, "*Ecce homo! Coram quem queritas adsum!*" "I am the very man that was thus drowned!" He arose immediately. "Well," said he, "what were the circumstances?" "I will tell them simply," said I. "I was a fearless lad, and I went to the shore of a fine river that pours itself into the Irish sea, riding a mare of my father's. I was determined to have a swim. I rode the mare, and we swam on till we got beyond the breakers entirely; but when we had got over swell after swell, and were proceeding still onward to the ocean, the mare and myself were swamped in a moment! I was soon disengaged from the mare; and, as I afterwards found, she naturally turned, got ashore, and went plodding her way back home. In a moment, I seemed to have all my former views and ideas entirely changed, and I had a sensation of the most complete happiness or felicity that it is possible, independent of rapture, for the human mind to feel. I had felt no pain from the moment I was submerged; and at once a kind of representation, nearly of a green color, presented itself to me; multitudes of objects were in it, not one of them, however, possessing any kind of likeness or analogy to any thing I had seen before. In this state, how long I continued, He only knows who saved my life; but so long did I continue in it, till one wave after another—for the tide was coming in—rolled me to the shore. There was no Royal Humane Society at hand; I believe the place is not blessed with one of them to the present day. The first sensation, when I came to life, was, as if a spear had been run through my heart. I felt this sensation in getting the very first draught of fresh air, when the lungs were inflated merely by the pressure of the atmosphere. I found myself sitting in the water, and it was by a swelling wave, that I was put out of the way of being overwhelmed by any of the succeeding waves. After a little time, I was capable of sitting up; the intense pain at my heart, however, still continued; but I had felt no pain from the moment I was submerged till the time when my head was brought above water, and the air once more entered my lungs. I saw the mare had passed along the shore at a considerable distance, not as if afraid of danger, but walking quite leisurely. How long I was submerged, it would be impossible precisely to say; but it was sufficiently

long, according to my apprehensions and any skill I now have in physiology, to have been completely dead, and never more to breathe in this world, had it not been for that Providence which, as it were, once more breathed into my nostrils and lungs the breath of this animal life, and I became once more a living soul; and at the space of threescore years, you have this strange phenomenon before you—the Preacher before the Royal Humane Society."

THE FIRST OATH.

"My lads," said a captain, when reading his orders to his crew on the quarter deck, to take the command of a ship, "there is one law I am determined to make, and I shall insist upon its being kept; indeed, it is a favor which I ask of you, and which, as a British officer, I expect will be granted by a crew of British seamen. What say you, my lads, are you willing to grant your new captain one favor?" "Ay, ay," cried all hands, "let's know what it is, Sir." "Well, my lads," said the captain, "it is this. That you must allow me to swear the first oath in the ship. No man on board must swear an oath before I do: I am determined to have the privilege of swearing the first on board. What say you, my lads, will you grant me this favor?" The men started, and stood for a moment quite at a loss what to say. "They were taken," says one, "*all a-back.*" "They were brought up," said another, "*all standing.*" The Captain reiterated, "Now, my fine fellows, what do you say, am I to have the privilege of swearing the first oath on board?" The appeal seemed so reasonable, and the manner of the Captain so kind and prepossessing, that a general burst from the ship's company announced "Ay, ay, Sir!" with their accustomed three cheers. The effect was good: swearing was wholly abolished in the ship.

THE TEETH.

A person cannot be too careful of his teeth, for much of his comfort depends upon attention to their cleanliness. Care ought to be taken that no grit be in any composition that he may use. Charcoal, however useful, ought to be used with caution, for even the finest contains sharp edges, which by friction will wear away the outer coat, and produce speedy decay. Filing is very injurious: remove the outward shell, and acids will, with ease, be enabled to act upon and corrode the teeth. Avoid purchasing all compositions for beautifying and whitening the teeth; they are in general composed of deleterious substances. I know a lady who made use of magnesia; her teeth were exquisitely white; but before she arrived at thirty, her front teeth had decayed. Another used lime, and was not more successful. Water, with a few drops of the tincture of myrrh, will be fully adequate. The too frequent use of acids is the principal cause of the loss of teeth. Myrrh will cause the gums to adhere closely to the tooth, and will therefore act as a preservative. There is great connexion between the stomach and the teeth; if care is not taken that the digestive organs be kept in order, the nerve of the tooth may be easily irritated, and cause great pain.

Salt dissolved in vinegar, and held in the mouth will relieve the severest pain, if the stomach be not the cause. A morbid stomach will generate both tooth and ear ache.

ODEYPOOR.

Odeypoor, a town in the western part of Hindoostan, has recently been acquired by the British. It had for several years been on the decline, but has begun to flourish. It has a splendid palace on the border of a lake, of which the following is a picture.



Odeypoor is situated within an amphitheatre of mountains, having only one opening, by which a carriage can approach.

A Derbyshire Tale.—About twenty or thirty years since, a gentleman named Webster, who lived in the Woodlands, a wild uncultivated barren range of hills in Derbyshire, bordering upon the confines of Yorkshire, had occasion to go from home. The family, besides himself, consisted of the servant man, a young girl, and the housekeeper. At his departure he gave his man a strict charge to remain in the house, along with the females, and not on any account to absent himself at night, until his return. This the man promised to do; and Mr. Webster proceeded on his journey. At night, however, the man went out, notwithstanding all the earnest entreaties and remonstrances of the housekeeper to the contrary, and not coming in, she and the servant girl at the usual time went to bed. Sometime in the night, they were awakened by a loud knocking at the door. The housekeeper got up, went down stairs, and inquired who was there, and what was their business? She was informed that a friend of Mr. Webster being benighted, and the night wet and stormy, requested a night's lodging. She forthwith gave him admittance, roused up the fire, led his horse into the stable, and then returned to provide something to eat for her guest, of which he partook, and was then shown to his chamber. On returning to the kitchen, she took up his greatcoat in order to dry it, when perceiving it to be, as she thought, very heavy, curiosity prompted her to examine the pockets, in which she found a brace of loaded pistols, and their own large carving knife! Thunderstruck by this discovery, she immediately perceived what sort of a guest she had to deal with, and his intentions. However, summoning up all her courage and resolution, she proceeded softly up stairs, and, with a rope, fastened, as well as she could, the door of the room in which the villain was; then went down, and in great perturbation of mind awaited the event. Shortly after a man came to the window, and in a low, but distinct tone of voice, said, "are you ready?" She grasped one of the pistols with a desperate resolution—presented it to his face—and fired! The report of the pistol alarmed the villain above, who attempted to get out of the room, but was stayed in his purpose by her saying, "Villain, if you open the door, you are a dead man." She then sent the servant girl for assistance, while she remained, with the other pistol in her hand, guarding the chamber door. When help arrived, the villain was taken into custody; and, on searching without, they found the servant man shot dead. Another villain who was taken shortly after, met with his deserts; and the housekeeper, who had acted with such fidelity and such unparalleled intrepidity, was soon after united to Mr. Webster.

"A little Learning is a dangerous Thing."—Then make it greater. No learning at all is surely the most dangerous thing in the world; and it is fortunate that, in this country at least, it is a danger which cannot possibly exist. After all, learning is acquired knowledge, and nothing else. A man who can read his Bible has a little learning; a man who can only plough or dig, has less; a man who can only break stones on the road, less still, but he has some. The savages in one of the islands in the South Sea, stood with great reverence round a sailor who had lighted a fire to boil some water in a saucepan; but as soon as the water began to boil, they ran away in an agony of terror. Compared with the savages, there is no boy in Europe, of the age of ten years, who may not be called learned. He has acquired a certain quantity of practical knowledge in physics; and, as this knowledge is more than instinct, it is learning; learning which differs in degree only from that

which enables a chemist to separate the simple metals from soda or potash.

The geographer Malte Brun remarks, that in many cities of the United States, that which is called a mob scarcely exists. Now it will be found that in these cities education has been unstintingly bestowed upon all classes, down to the very lowest

The Good Providence of God.—The more narrowly we examine the works of nature, the more and more are we convinced that the whole order of the universe is the result of plan, or a previous design on the part of a Deity. Perhaps the cause for ordure, or putrescent matter having a bad smell, has never occurred to the minds of many individuals; yet that bad smell has been given for the wisest of purposes. It is in order that the objects producing the offensive scent may be carried out of sight and buried; and by being thus deposited under a covering of earth, assume new properties, and be the means of yielding a rich crop of new food. Here, then, it is demonstrated, that cleanliness, or the removal of every description of nuisances from the doors of cottages, and other places in the vicinity of the dwellings of man, is expressly ordained by God Almighty himself, and that he who is remiss in doing so absolutely resists the beneficent will of the Divinity.—*Chambers.*

JEREMY TAYLOR'S NIGHTLY PRAYER

For himself and his friends, was for God's merciful deliverance and preservation

"From the violence and rule of passion, from a servile will, and a commanding lust; from pride and vanity; from false opinion and ignorant confidence;

"From improvidence and prodigality; from envy and the spirit of slander; from sensuality; from presumption and from despair;

"From a state of temptation and hardened spirit; from delaying of repentance and persevering in sin; from unthankfulness and irreligion, and from seducing others;

"From all infatuation of soul, folly and madness; from wilfulness, self-love, and vain ambition; from a vicious life and an unprovided death."

VARIETIES.

A lot of land was recently sold in Buffalo for \$75,000, which a few years ago was purchased for \$300. This truly prosperous city is destined to great commercial importance, and probably not many years will intervene, ere it will prove the capital of the Mighty West.

The bones of a large animal—probably the mammoth—have been discovered near the river Don, in Upper Canada. They were embedded six feet deep in clay. The weight of a single tooth is 3½ pounds, and the other relics are of a size to correspond.

A valuable salt Spring has been discovered by boring, near Pittsburgh, on the opposite side of the Monongahela river.—The depth reached by this process was 627 feet, and the stream of salt water rises to a height of 30 feet above the level of the earth, and at the rate of 7000 gallons in 24 hours, of strength sufficient to make 12 or 15 barrels of salt.

The sales of public lands in the territory of Michigan during the quarter ending the 29th June, amounted to \$205,000.

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THE CASTLE OF EHRENBREITSTEIN.

On the right bank of the Rhine, upon the summit of a rocky hill, directly opposite to the city of Coblenz, stands the Castle of Ehrenbreitstein ("the broad stone of honor.") It is now one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, both in respect of its natural position, and its artificial defences. It was originally a Roman camp, was renovated in 1160, and afterwards repaired and enlarged by the Elector John, Margrave of Baden, who dug a well of the depth of 230 feet, which was afterwards sunk 300 feet further. During the revolutionary war, the castle was exposed to many hazards. General Marceau blockaded it for a month when the French army first passed the Rhine, in September 1795. It was twice blockaded in 1796, and cannonaded the second time from the neighboring heights of Pfaffendorf and Arzheim, without sustaining any injury. The French got possession of the height of Rellenkopf, but without any further success, and the retreat of General Jourdan obliged them to raise the siege. It was again blockaded in 1797 by the French General Hoche, who kept it so till the peace of Léoben; and in 1798 it was once more blockaded by the French, whilst the Congress of Radstadt was sitting, and was reduced to such a state of famine, that the defenders are said to have lived, among other things, upon cats and horse-flesh; cats being sold at three francs each, and horse-flesh at a franc per pound. In spite of the exertions of the commandant, Colonel Faber, and his earnest representations to the Congress, the castle was left to its fate, and finally surrendered to the French in January 1799. The French blew

up and otherwise destroyed great part of the works; and the view above given shows it in the state to which it was reduced by them. The convention of Paris at the termination of the war, in 1815, determined to reestablish the fortifications, and Ehrenbreitstein, with the adjoining fortifications of the Chartreuse and Petersberg, is now the most important fortress of the German frontier. The ancient monastery of the Chartreuse commands the approaches from Mayence and Hunsruch; Petersberg, those of Trèves and Cologne; and Ehrenbreitstein, the Rhine and the road from Nassau. The form and durability of the new works have been much admired. They have been constructed from the plans of Montalembert and Carnot, and the castle has received the official name of "Fort Frederick William," from the present King of Prussia. The works are shown to visitors, on their obtaining permission of the commandant.

The view from the summit of the castle is a very rich and extensive one. Before you is Coblenz, its bridge of boats, and its two islands on the Rhine; behind it, the village and the beautiful ruins of the Chartreuse, upon a hill covered with vines and fruit-trees. The scope of the view embraces more than thirty towns and villages. The Rhine flows majestically beneath it, and is here at about the widest part of its course. The space of about 120 miles between Mayence and Cologne, in which Coblenz stands midway, is that where the Rhine is broadest; and its scenery the most picturesque. The view of this old castle naturally leads us to reflect on the degree in which modern Europe has

ceased to resemble the classic ages in which Ehrenbreitstein was founded, or the feudal ages to which so much of its history belongs. It still bears the name of "the broad stone of honor," though many say that the days of honor have passed away with the days of chivalry. But if honor, in these times, has become rather a synonymous term for honesty and good faith, than the fantastic touchstone of chivalry, we have gained greatly by the change. The middle ages were not without their virtues, but they were all of a romantic kind. In the present times, it is to the inculcation of practical morality, the establishment of just laws, and the influence of a due sense of the plain and simple truths of religion, that we must look for the advancement of integrity and virtue among communities. The middle ages were too fertile in oppression, in crime, and in misery, to be regarded with any thing like regret that their character and spirit have not been stamped upon the times in which we are living.

DECISION OF CHARACTER.

You may recollect the mention, in one of our conversations, of a young man who wasted in two or three years a large patrimony, in profligate revels with a number of worthless associates calling themselves his friends, till his means were exhausted, when they of course treated him with neglect or contempt. Reduced to absolute want, he one day went out of the house with an intention to put an end to his life; but wandering awhile almost unconsciously, he came to the brow of an eminence which overlooked what were lately his estates. Here he sat down, and remained fixed in thought a number of hours, at the end of which he sprang from the ground with a vehement exulting emotion. He had formed his resolution, which was, that all these estates should be his again; he had formed his plan too, which he instantly began to execute. He walked hastily forward, determined to seize the very first opportunity, of however humble a kind, to gain any money, though it were ever so despicable a trifle, and resolved absolutely not to spend, if he could help it, a farthing of whatever he might obtain. The first thing that drew his attention was a heap of coals shot out of carts on the pavement before a house. He offered himself to shovel or wheel them into the place where they were to be laid, and was employed. He received a few pence for the labor; and then, in pursuance of the saving part of his plan, requested some small gratuity of meat and drink, which was given him. He then looked out for the next thing that might chance to offer; and went with indefatigable industry through a succession of servile employments, of longer or shorter duration, still scrupulously avoiding, as far as possible, the expense of a penny. He promptly seized every opportunity which could advance his design, without regarding the meanness of occupation or appearance. By this method he had gained, after a considerable time, money enough to purchase, in order to sell again, a few cattle, of which he had taken pains to understand the value. He speedily but cautiously turned his first gains into second advantages; retained without a single deviation his extreme parsimony; and thus advanced by degrees into larger transactions and incipient wealth. I did not hear, or have forgotten, the continued course of his life: but the final result was, that he more than recovered his lost possessions, and died an inveterate miser, worth 60,000*l*.

I have always recollected this as a signal instance, though in an unfortunate and ignoble direction, of decisive character, and of the extraordinary effect, which, according to general laws, belongs to the strongest form of such a character. — (*Foster's Essays.*)

SUPERSTITION OF THE HORSESHOE.

The horseshoe was, of old, held to be of especial service as a security against the attacks of evil spirits. This virtue may have been assigned, perhaps, by the rule of contraries, from its being a thing incompatible with the cloven foot of the Evil One; or from the rude resemblance which the horseshoe bears to the rays of glory which, in ancient pictures, are made to surround the heads of saints and angels; or, finally, from some notion of its purity acquired in passing through the fire. This latter supposition receives some countenance from the method resorted to for the cure of horses that had become vicious, or afflicted by any distemper which village farriery did not understand; such disease was invariably attributed to witchcraft, and the mode of cure seems to imply the belief that the imperfect purification by fire of the shoes which the animal wore, had afforded an inlet to malevolent influences. Accordingly, the horse was led into the smithy; the door was closed and barred; the shoes were taken off, and placed in the fire, and the witch or warlock was speedily under the necessity of removing the spell under which the animal suffered.

We have a farther proof that the efficacy of fire constituted a part of the virtues inherent in the horseshoe, in the manner of reclaiming bewitched milk. All who have the management of a dairy knew that at certain seasons of the year butter will not "come" from cream, nor milk be converted into curd, with the same ease as at others. The modern reasoners on the causes of things look upon this as being occasioned by the sort of food the cattle take; but all the farmers' wives of last century knew perfectly well that it was the effect of nothing else but some envious person's evil eye; and they took their measures accordingly. On the return of the milkmaids with their milking pails upon their heads, when the foremost took down her vessel in order to pass under the door-way, the mistress was ready to drop a horseshoe heated red-hot into the milk. It was necessary that the ceremony should be performed at the instant when the young woman was lowering the pail; and as it was farther required that no one should be aware of the good dame's intention, the troop of milkmaids was often thrown into the utmost dismay by the sudden bubbling and hissing, and the screams of their companion more immediately concerned. The loss of the whole meal of milk was the usual consequence, to say nothing of the work created for the cooper; but these were matters of inferior importance, the future productiveness of the milk being an ample set-off against lesser mischances—and *that*, it need scarcely be added, was invariably secured.

A horseshoe was commonly nailed upon the doors of the cow-houses; but this was not at all times a sufficient protection, as in summer the cows were not driven home at night, but milked a-field, and shut up in an open enclosure. When people began to be half ashamed of superstition, instead of nailing the horseshoe on the outside, they fixed

it to the inside of the doors both of dwelling-houses and farm-offices; and in that situation it may at this day be detected in many parts of the country. Thus the devil, though not openly defied, might come to burn his fingers if he were to attempt an entrance.

Sailors are, or were, for the most part, careful to have a horseshoe nailed to the mizzen-mast, or somewhere on deck near midships, for the protection of the vessel.

The Chinese have their tombs built in the shape of the horseshoe, as we are informed by Captain Hall, in his voyage to Loo Choo; which custom is very curious, as it may be fairly regarded as a branch of the superstition prevalent among ourselves.

SUMMER AND THE POET.

POET.

Oh ' golden, golden summer,
What is it thou hast done?
Thou hast chased each vernal roamer
With thy fiercely burning sun.

Glad was the cuckoo's hail;
Where may we hear it now?
Thou hast driven the nightingale
From the waving hawthorn bough.

Thou hast shrunk the mighty river;
Thou hast made the small brook flee
And the light gales faintly quiver
In the dark and shadowy tree.

Spring waked her tribes to bloom,
And on the greensward dance.
Thou hast smitten them to the tomb,
With thy consuming glance.

And now Autumn cometh on,
Singing 'midst shocks of corn,
Thou hastenest to be gone,
As if joy might not be borne.

SUMMER.

And dost thou of me complain,
Thou, who, with dreamy eyes,
In the forest's moss hast laid,
Praising my silvery skies?

Thou, who didst deem divine
The shrill cicada's tune,
When the odors of the pine
Gushed through the woods at noon?

I have run my fervid race;
I have wrought my task once more;
I have filled each fruitful place
With a plenty that runs o'er.

There is treasure for the garner;
There is honey with the bee;
And, oh! thou thankless scooner,
There's a parting boon for thee.

Soon as, in misty sadness,
Sere Autumn yields his reign,
Winter, with stormy madness,
Shall chase thee from the plain.

Then shall these scenes Elysian
Bright in thy spirit burn;
And each summer-thought and vision
Be thine till I return.

INFLUENCE OF THE MOON.

A late number of the Foreign Quarterly Review contains a notice of some scientific inquiries, made by a French gentleman, M. Arago, into the influence of the moon. The first question, which M. Arago undertakes to examine, is, *whether the moon*

exercises any influence on the rain; and the result of his investigations is, that, if certain observations may be relied upon, it rains more frequently during the increase than during the wane of the moon.

The influence of the moon on the terrestrial atmosphere seems also to be rendered evident by observations of a different kind, namely, the mean heights of the barometer at the different lunar phases. The conclusion of M. Arago is, however, that "the inequalities of pressure indicated by observation must be referred to some cause different from attraction; to some cause certainly depending on the moon, but of which the nature and mode of action still remain to be discovered."

Among the ancients the opinion was universally entertained that the different aspects of the moon furnish sure *prognostics* of the future state of the weather.

"If," says Aratus, "on the third day of the moon the horns of the crescent are sharp and well defined, the sky will continue serene during the whole of the month."

This is a notion which we believe to be very prevalent at the present day among the farmers of our own country. The following is the commentary of Arago.

"In reality, when the moon in the evening begins to disengage herself from the sun's rays, she has always the form of a crescent, terminated by two very sharp horns; but if the atmosphere happens to be troubled, the horns appear enlarged. This enlargement, however, is a mere optical illusion, and is occasioned by strongly illuminated clouds, in apparent contact with the moon, and seeming to form a constituent part of her body. The fine extremities of the crescent are then lost as it were in the parasitical light which surrounds the moon, and become invisible to the naked eye. All this is rendered evident by employing a telescope, which destroys the illusion."

Many other aphorisms of the same nature might be quoted from Aratus, Theon, Theophrastus, Pliny, and other ancient writers on rural affairs. But they may be dismissed with the general remark that they had their origin in that ignorance which confounds signs with causes, and are now disregarded, excepting by the most illiterate and credulous. They are besides at total variance with the theory of the influence of the phases.

"It is generally believed, especially in the neighborhood of Paris, that the moon, in certain months, has a great influence on the phenomena of vegetation. The gardeners give the name of *red moon* (lune rousse) to the moon which, beginning in April, becomes full either about the end of that month, or more usually in the course of May. In the months of April and May the moon, according to them, exercises a pernicious influence on the young shoots of plants. They maintain that they have observed during the night, when the sky is clear, the leaves and buds exposed to this light to become red, that is to say, to be frozen, although the thermometer, in the free atmosphere, stood several degrees above the freezing point. They also assert, that if the rays of the moon are intercepted by clouds, and thereby prevented from reaching the plants, the same effects do not take place, under circumstances perfectly similar in other respects with regard to temperature.

Now it has been proved by Dr. Wells, that terrestrial substances, excepting in the case of a very rapid evaporation, may acquire during the night,

a different temperature from that of the surrounding air. On placing little masses of cotton, down, &c. in the open air, it is frequently observed they acquire a temperature of six, seven, or even eight centigrade degrees below that of the surrounding atmosphere. The same is the case with vegetables. We cannot therefore judge of the degree of cold with which a plant is affected during the night by the indications of a thermometer suspended in the free atmosphere: *the plant may be strongly frozen, although the air remains constantly several degrees above the freezing point.* These differences of temperature between solid bodies and the atmosphere only rise to six, seven or eight degrees of the thermometer, when the sky is perfectly clear. If the sky is clouded, they become insensible.

"It is now necessary to point out the connexion between these phenomena and the opinions of the country people regarding the April moon.

"In the nights of April and May the temperature of the atmosphere is frequently only 4, 5, or 6 centigrade degrees above zero. When this happens, plants exposed to the moon,—*that is to say, to a clear sky,*—may be frozen, notwithstanding the indications of the thermometer. If the moon, on the contrary, does not shine—in short, if the sky is cloudy, the temperature of the plants does not fall below that of the atmosphere, and they will consequently not be frozen unless the thermometer indicates zero. It is therefore quite true, as the gardeners pretend, that under thermometrical circumstances precisely alike, a plant may be frozen or not, according as the moon may be visible or concealed behind clouds. If they are deceived, it is only in their conclusion, in attributing the effect to the light of the moon. The moon's light is, in this case, only the index of a clear atmosphere; it is only in consequence of the clearness of the sky, that the nocturnal congelation of plants takes place; the moon contributes to the effect in no way whatever; although she were hid under the horizon the effect would not be different."

The explanation here given is perfectly satisfactory, and may be extended to some other notions that have prevailed respecting the lunar influence. For example, it is said by Pliny and Plutarch, and is at the present day generally believed in the West Indies that the moon sheds a copious humidity on bodies exposed to her rays, and that her light hastens the putrefaction of animal substances. This opinion is, to a certain extent, countenanced by facts.

"A body exposed to the light of the moon,—*that is to say, to a clear sky,*—becomes, in consequence of its radiation, colder than the surrounding air. Under these circumstances the air deposits a portion of its humidity on the cold surface of the body, which is neither more nor less than the phenomenon of dew, as analyzed by Doctor Wells.—Now, animal substances become much sooner putrid when moist than when dry. The observation of Pliny and Plutarch is therefore correct in all its details. It was only necessary to reform the theory, and acquit the moon of the mischief ascribed to her."

We must close our extracts by quoting from the American Farmer the following remarks in reference to this subject:—"As it respects the influence of the moon on the weather, on crops, &c. we have no doubt that the general belief in it has done as much harm to the agricultural interest, as any other evil with which farmers and planters have to contend. How often do farmers omit a favorable sea-

son to plant a crop of potatoes, &c. because it is 'not the right time of the moon.' Many people will not kill hogs or beef, unless at a particular time of the moon. And when the 'right time of the moon' does come, it is at least an equal chance that the state of the weather will not admit of these operations, or some other more necessary business must be performed, and of course they must be put off till the moon comes round again to the proper 'time.' Almost every body can tell what weather we are to have for the next four weeks, by looking at the new moon, and lay out their work accordingly. If the horns of the new moon are perpendicular, they say we are to have a wet moon, and at haying and harvest time, many a good crop is saved by the prompt advantage taken of every clear day; because, they say, we shall have very few such days this moon. This, to be sure, is a very useful error; but its opposite more than balances the account. When the new moon shows her horns in a horizontal position, somewhat like a section of a bowl slightly inclined upon its side, then they say we shall have a dry moon, and the hay and the crops are neglected, because 'we shall have plenty of dry weather this moon.' Now there is no 'old saw' more useful to farmers, than the good old adage—'make hay while the sun shines;' which means, do whatever you have to do, and can do, to-day, and let the moon mind her own business, as you may be sure she is inclined to, if you will only let her alone—she cares no more for your potatoes and pork, and exercises no more influence over your operations 'than the man in the moon.'

ADVANTAGE OF A LITTLE KNOWLEDGE.

The mysteries of magnetism should be unfolded to the sailor, above all men, since he is the one of all others whose safety depends on its phenomena. He should be told that on electro-magnetic principles he would materially influence the march of the needle by wiping the glass which screens it—especially with silk. It is some years since a fact was communicated to me, which may be adduced in illustration; it was that of a ship which arrived at Liverpool, after having been for several weeks the sport of winds and waves; the mariner's compass having been washed overboard in a storm, their voyage was dreary and procrastinated—much caution being necessary, and despite of which, their fate, but for a fortuitous circumstance, might have been inevitably sealed. Now, had the simple fact of the extreme ease with which a mariner's needle might be made, been known to any on board, the peril might have been avoided. A sewing-needle, or the blade of a penknife, being held in an upright posture, and struck by a hammer; and subsequently floated by cork on water, or suspended by a thread without torsion,* would become a magnetic-needle, and point north and south; or the end of a poker held vertically, and passed over its surface from one extreme to the other, would impart magnetism, and which, if the needle be of steel, would be of a permanent character.—*Mechanics' Magazine.*

A Tough Morsel. A French writer speaking of the relative situation of England and Ireland, says that the larger island devoured the smaller, but has never been able to digest it

* That is, without being twisted.



THE PRISONER OF CHILLON.

The above engraving represents the dungeon of Chillon. On the pillar to the right is Lord Byron's name, cut deep with a knife by himself before he wrote his poem on Chillon.

It appears from the notes to "the Prisoner of Chillon," that the castle of Chillon is situated between Clarens and Villeneuve, which last is at one extremity of the Lake of Geneva. On its left are the entrances of the Rhone, and opposite are the heights of Meillerie and the range of Alps above Boveret and St. Gingo.

Near it, on a hill behind, is a torrent; below it, washing its walls, the lake has been fathomed to the depth of 800 feet (French measure;) within it are a range of dungeons, in which the early reformers, and subsequently prisoners of state, were confined. Across one of the vaults is a beam, black with age, on which the condemned are said to have been formerly executed. In the cells are seven pillars, or rather eight, one being half merged in the wall; in some of these are rings for the fetters and the fettered: in the pavement the steps of Bonivard have left their traces—he was confined here several years. The following extract from Byron's *Prisoner of Chillon*, describes the dungeon:—

There are seven pillars of Gothic mould,
In Chillon's dungeons deep and old,
There are seven columns, massy and gray,
Dim with a dull imprisoned ray,
A sunbeam which hath lost its way,
And through the crevice and the cleft
Of the thick wall is fallen and left;
Creeping o'er the floor so damp,
Like a marsh's meteor lamp:
And in each pillar there is a ring,
And in each ring there is a chain;
That iron is a cankering thing,
For in these limbs its teeth remain,
With marks that will not wear away,
Till I have done with this new day,
Which now is painful to these eyes,
Which have not seen the sun so rise

For years—I cannot count them o'er;
I lost their long and heavy score
When my last brother drooped and died,
And I lay living by his side.

HORNS OF CATTLE.

Amongst the causes which tend to the cheap production of any article, and which require additional capital, may be mentioned, the care which is taken to allow no part of the raw produce, out of which it is formed, to be absolutely wasted. An attention to this circumstance sometimes causes the union of two trades in one factory, which otherwise would naturally have been separated. An enumeration of the arts to which the horns of cattle are applicable, furnishes a striking example of this kind of economy.

The tanner, who has purchased the hides, separates the horns, and sells them to the makers of combs and lanterns. The horn consists of two parts; an outward horny case, and an inward conical-shaped substance, somewhat between hardened hair and bone. The first process consists in separating these two parts, by means of a blow against a block of wood. The horny outside is then cut into three portions, by means of a frame-saw.

1. The lowest of these, next the root of the horn, after undergoing several processes, by which it is rendered flat, is made into combs.

2. The middle of the horn, after being flattened by heat, and its transparency improved by oil, is split into thin layers, and forms a substitute for glass in lanterns of the commonest kind.

3. The tip of the horn is used by the makers of knife-handles and of the tops of whips, and similar purposes.

4. The interior, or core of the horn, is boiled down in water. A large quantity of fat rises to the surface: this is put aside, and sold to the makers of yellow soap.

5. The liquid itself is used as a kind of glue, and is purchased by the cloth-dressers for stiffening.

6. The bony substance, which remains behind, is ground down, and sold to the farmers for manure.

Besides these various purposes to which the different parts of the horn are applied, the chippings which arise in comb-making are sold to the farmer for manure. In the first year after they are spread over the soil, they have comparatively little effect; but during the next four or five, their efficiency is considerable. The shavings, which form the refuse of the lantern-maker, are of a much thinner texture. A few of them are cut into various figures, and painted and used as toys; for they curl up when placed in the palm of a warm hand. But the greater part of these shavings are sold also for manure, which, from their extremely thin and divided form, produces its full effect upon the first crop.

GAMING HOUSES OF LONDON.

The gaming-houses of London—at least those on a great scale—are all situate in the modern and elegant quarter of the town, and are among the greatest wonders of this world of houses and human beings. In the slang of the town, such dens of vice and plunder are designated *Hells*,—a name too applicable to the nature of the business transacted within them. We are credibly informed by the author of *Life in the West*—a recent production, that these houses are fitted up in a style of extraordinary splendor, and that their expenses are enormous, though nothing in comparison to the profits realized. One house is supported at an expense of a thousand pounds a week. The next in eminence costs a hundred and fifty pounds a week, and the minor ones vary from fifty to eighty pounds. Each house has a regular compliment of officials, who are paid extravagant salaries. The inspectors or overlookers, are paid from six to eight pounds a week each; the “croupiers,” or dealers, three to six pounds; the waiters and porters, two pounds; and a person who keeps a look out after the police officers, to give warning of their approach, two pounds. The money disbursed for secret information, wines, &c., cannot be easily ascertained, but must be very large.

Every thing in the interior of these mansions is elegant; but certain things betoken the dreadful and hazardous nature of the establishment. The doors and window shutters are fortified with strong iron plates, so that an ingress by violence is a tardy and difficult matter. There is one of these iron doors at the bottom of the stairs, one near the top, and a third at the entrance into the gaming room. These are opened and closed one after the other, as the person ascends or descends. In each of the doors there is a little round glass peep hole, for the porters to take a deliberate view of all persons desirous of admittance, in order to keep out or let in whom they choose.

An unsophisticated person would naturally enough suppose, from this account, that none but those of great courage would dare to penetrate into the heart of these establishments; but it must be explained that there is nothing like gruffness or jailorism in the keepers of the mansion. The whole is placed on an easy genteel footing. No civility can equal that of the waiters, while the condescension of the proprietors, or *bankers*, the refreshments and wine, all combined, have an interesting and deceptive influence upon the inexperienced and unreflecting mind. But what kind of people are they who keep such houses? are they born a par-

ticular class? By no means. In London there is always a large number of individuals, the refuse of every rank, and the natives of every country floating on the surface of society, ready to engage in any desperate undertaking, providing it can bring money into the pocket, and indulgence to the passions. The proprietors of these houses are composed of a heterogeneous mass of worn-out gamblers, black-legs, horse dealers, jockeys, valets, pettifogging lawyers, low tradesmen, men in business, who have failed through their debauchery, and others of a similar stamp. They dress in the first style of fashion, keep country houses, carriages, horses, and fare sumptuously; bedizen themselves out with valuable gold watches, chains, seals, diamond and other rings, costly snuff-boxes, &c.—property, with but little exception, originally belonging to unfortunates who had been fleeced of every thing, and who, in the moment of distress, parted with them for a mere trifle. Some have got into large private mansions, and keep first-rate establishments. Persons, with a very superficial knowledge of the world, can easily discern through the thin disguise of gentlemen they assume.

The degree of blackguardism, villany, and wasteful profusion which characterize these infamous establishments, will, doubtless, appal the minds of thousands of our respectable and industrious readers; but there is a use in thus unfolding scenes capable of scaring the unwary man of property, or those in desperate circumstances, from the gaming table, while the virtuous portion of the community, in reading such accounts of what is hourly transacting—night and day, Sunday as well as every other day in the week—in the metropolis, will draw closer together, and learn to be thankful that their simple and honest occupations do not lead them into the way of such unhallowed temptations.

SNUFFTAKING — SMOKING.

Some time since, during the argument of a heavy cause in the Court of Chancery, a friend having in vain endeavored to draw the attention of the witty Sir G——R——from his brief, as a last resource presented him with a pinch of snuff. Sir G—— however, on declining the offer, observed with an air of solemnity, “Had the Creator intended my nose for a dust-hole, he would not have turned it upside down.”

As snuff and tobacco form a considerable item in the expenditure of the working classes, it may be proper to mention, that the highest medical authorities are of opinion that the use of them is prejudicial to health. The following is the opinion of the celebrated Dr. Cullen on the subject:—“Tobacco is a well-known drug, of a narcotic quality, which it discovers in all persons, even in a small quantity, when first applied to them. I have known a small quantity of it, snuffed up the nose, produce giddiness, stupor, and vomiting; and, when applied in different ways, in larger quantity, there are many instances of its more violent effects, even of its proving a mortal poison. In all these instances, it operates in the manner of other narcotics, but, along with its narcotic qualities, it possesses also a strong stimulant power, perhaps with respect to the whole system, but especially with respect to the stomach and intestines, so as readily, even in no great doses, to prove emetic and purgative. By this combination of qualities, all the effects of tobacco may be explained; but I shall begin with

considering its effects as they appear in the use of it as an article of living. When snuff is first employed, if it be not both in small quantity, and be not thrown out immediately by sneezing, it occasions some giddiness and confusion of the head; but, by repetition, these effects cease to be produced, and no other effect of it appears in the accustomed, when not taken beyond the usual quantity. But, even in the habituated, when it is taken beyond the usual quantity, it produces somewhat of the same giddiness and confusion of head that it did when first employed; and, in several cases, these effects in persons accustomed, depending on a larger dose, are not only more considerable, as they act on the sensorium, but as they appear also in other parts of the system, particularly in the stomach, occasioning a loss of appetite, and other symptoms of a weakened tone in that organ. With respect to this, it is to be observed, that persons who take a great deal of snuff, though they seem, from the power of habit, to escape its narcotic effects, yet, as they are often liable to go to excess in the quantity taken, so they are still in danger from these effects operating in an insensible manner; and I have observed several instances of their being affected in the same manner as persons are from the long use of other narcotics, such as wine and opium,—that is, by a loss of memory, by a fatuity, and other symptoms of the weakened or senile state of the nervous system, induced before the usual period. Among other effects of excess in snuffing, I have found all the symptoms of dyspepsy produced by it, and particularly pains of the stomach, occurring every day. The dependence of those upon the use of snuff became very evident from hence, that, upon an accidental interruption of snuffing for some days, these pains did not occur, but, upon a return to snuffing, the pains also recurred; and this alternation of pains of the stomach, and of snuffing having occurred again, the snuff was entirely laid aside, and the pains did not recur for many months after, nor, so far as I know, for the rest of life. Another effect of snuff to be taken notice of is, that, as a part of the snuff is often carried back into the fauces, so a part of this is often carried down into the stomach, and then more certainly produces the dyspeptic symptoms mentioned. These are the considerations that relate to snuffing; and some of them will readily apply to the other modes of using this drug. Smoking, when first practised, shows very strongly the narcotic, vomiting, and even purging powers of tobacco, and it is very often useful as an anodyne; but, by repetition, these effects disappear, or only show themselves when the quantity smoked is beyond what habit had before admitted of; and, even in persons much accustomed to it, it may be carried so far as to prove a mortal poison. From much smoking, all the same effects may arise which we said might arise from excess of snuffing. With respect to the evacuation of mucus, which is produced by snuffing, there are analogous effects produced by smoking, which commonly stimulates the mucous follicles of the mouth and fauces, particularly the excretories of the salivary glands. Sometimes smoking dries the mouth and fauces, and occasions a demand for drink; but as commonly the stimulus it applies to the mucous follicles and salivary glands draws forth their liquids, it occasions, on the other hand, a frequent spitting. So far as this is of the proper saliva, it occasions a waste of that liquid, so necessary in the business of digestion; and, both by this waste, and by the

narcotic power at the same time applied, the tone of the stomach is often weakened, and every kind of dyspeptic symptoms are produced. The third mode of using tobacco is that of chewing it, when it shows its narcotic qualities as strongly as in any other way of applying it, though the nauseous taste of it commonly prevents its being carried far in the first practice. When the practice, however, is continued, as it is very difficult to avoid some part of it, dissolved in the saliva, from going down into the stomach, so this, with the nausea excited by the taste, makes vomiting more readily occasioned by this than the other modes of applying it. They are the strong, and even disagreeable, impressions repeated, that give the most durable and tenacious habits, and, therefore, the chewing of tobacco is apt to become one of these; and it is, therefore, in this way that it is ready to be carried to the greatest excess, and to show all the effects of the frequent and large use of narcotics. This practice is also the occasion of the greatest loss of saliva; and the effects of this in weakening digestion, and perhaps, from thence especially its noted effect of producing emaciation, may appear."

Several cases of disease are mentioned, in which the use of tobacco is said to be beneficial; but it appears to be the conviction of this great physician, that, in none of its forms, can it be beneficial to the healthy subject.



EGYPTIAN EGG-OVEN.

It is a well-known fact, that eggs may be hatched by artificial means. The Egyptians, as well as those who have tried the experiment in Europe, have succeeded, by means of artificial heat, in hatching eggs without any aid from the mother birds.

According to the best descriptions of the Egyptian *mamal*, or hatching oven, it is a brick structure about nine feet high. The middle is formed into a gallery about three feet wide and eight feet high, extending from one end of the building to the other. This gallery forms the entrance to the oven, and commands its whole extent, facilitating the various operations indispensable for keeping the eggs at the proper degree of warmth. On each side of this gallery there is a double row of rooms, every room on the ground-floor having one over it of precisely the same dimensions, namely, three feet in height, four or five in breadth, and twelve or fifteen in length. These have a round hole for an entrance of about a foot and a half in diameter, wide enough for a man to creep through; and into each are put four or five thousand eggs.

When the fires have been continued for eight or twelve days, according to the weather, they are

discontinued, the heat acquired by the ovens being sufficient to finish the hatching, which requires in all twenty-one days, the same time as when eggs are naturally hatched by a hen.

The number of ovens dispersed in the several districts of Egypt has been estimated at 386; and it has been computed that a million of chickens are annually hatched, in this manner, in Egypt.

American Cotton.—By the Liverpool Price Current of 31st May, there had been imported from the U. States, since 1st Jan. last, 343,054 bales Cotton, and 257,000 bales more were expected, making 600,000 bales for the year. This Cotton would sell in Liverpool at a fair estimate for \$42 per bale, making the sum of \$25,200,000. At one cent per lb. freight, \$1,800,000 will be paid to the ship owners, and at ten cents per lb. for the cost, \$18,000,000 will be paid to the cotton planters of the Southern States. About 350,000 bales more have been shipped to France and other parts of Europe, and to the middle and northern States, worth at 10 cents per lb. \$10,700,000.

Silver Mines of Mexico.—From an article in the last number of Silliman's Journal, we learn that there are about 500 towns or principal places in Mexico celebrated for the explorations of silver that surround them. These 500 places comprehend together about 3000 mines. The whole number of veins and

masses in the exploration is between 4000 and 5000. The ore is generally in veins,—rarely in beds or masses. The vein of Guanaxuato is the most extensive. It is from 120 to 150 feet thick, and is explored in different places for a distance of nine miles. The quantity of silver in the ores averages from 3 to 4 ounces the quintal, or from 1-448 to 1-597th of the weight of ore. The annual produce of silver in Mexico during the last years of the 17th century, was 1,134,424 lbs.

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VOL. I.



GROUP FROM BURNS'S TAM O'SHANTER.

We have the pleasure of presenting to our readers a wood engraving of the four statues illustrative of Burns's tale of Tam O'Shanter, which are now exhibiting in this city at Harding's Gallery in School Street. The drawing is by Johnson, and has been pronounced by the proprietor of the figures, the best representation of them that has yet been published. The eager, happy air of Tam, who is breathing—"soft whispers" in the ear of the landlady, whilst his uplifted tankard is totally disregarded, and her own mute, delighted attention, are admirably expressed. The position of her arms and feet, however, evidently betokens, that she is momentarily expecting the call of a customer, and the very situation of the bar is at once imagined by the spectator.

The Souter (Cobbler) exhibits in his quiet contentment, the calm satisfaction of one, who drinks at another's expense, who has the wit to please, and the tact to use it rightly. He is amusing the landlord, so that Tam may pursue his object without interruption. His overflowing humor seems to have completely subdued his companion, whose muscular organs are relaxed, his head thrown back, and even his laugh the laugh of exhaustion.

Though Johnson's design conveys much of the spirit of the original, it is necessarily imperfect. Our readers should see the statues themselves, to form an idea of the skill and genius employed in their execution. Reminding them that the merry group will not continue in this city long, we hasten to make the following extract from an Ed-

inburgh journal, which was written by "a gentleman who has made sculpture and painting his particular study for many years," and which will, we believe, prove interesting to the public.

'James Thom, the sculptor of these wonderful figures, is a native of Ayrshire, and of respectable parentage near Tarbolton. Although, like those of his countryman and inspirer, his relatives were all engaged in agricultural pursuits, (his brothers, we understand, possess large farms,) the young man himself preferred the occupation of a mason, and was, accordingly, apprenticed to a craftsman in Kilmarnock. This profession was probably selected as offering the nearest approach to the undefined workings and predilections of his own inexperienced mind, since he was not, as in the instance of several sculptors of eminence, thrown first into the trade of a stone mason by the force of circumstances. This would appear from his showing little attachment to the drudgery of the art: accordingly, his first master is understood to have pronounced him rather a dull apprentice. From the beginning, he seems to have looked forward to the ornamental part of his calling; and in a country town where there was little or no opportunity of employment in that line, to those more immediately concerned, he might appear less useful than a less aspiring workman. The evidences of young Thom's diligence and talent at this time, however, still remain in numerous specimens of carving in stone, which he himself still considers, we are told, as superior to any thing he has yet done

His term of apprenticeship being expired, Mr. Thom repaired to Glasgow in pursuit of better employment. Here his merits were immediately perceived, and so well rewarded, that his wages were considerably higher than the ordinary rate.

In his present profession, Mr. Thom's career may be dated from the commencement of the winter of 1927. Being employed at this time in the immediate neighborhood, he applied to Mr. Auld, of Ayr, who afterwards proved his steady and judicious friend, for permission to take a sketch from a portrait of Burns, with the intention of executing a bust of the poet. This is a good copy of the original picture by Mr. Nasmyth, and is suspended in the very elegant and classical monument, from a design by Mr. Hamilton, erected to the memory of the bard, on the banks of the Doon, near "Allowa's auld haunted kirk." The permission was kindly granted; doubts, however, being at the same time expressed, how far the attempt was likely to prove successful, Mr. Thom not being then known in Ayr. These doubts seemed to be confirmed, on the latter returning with a very imperfect sketch, taken by placing transparent paper on the picture. These occurrences happened on the Wednesday, consequently nothing could be done till Thursday, when materials were to be procured, and other arrangements made, before the work was absolutely begun. The surprise then may be conceived, on the artist returning on the Monday following with the finished bust. In this work, though somewhat defective as a likeness, the execution, the mechanical details, and the general effect, were wonderful, especially when viewed in connexion with the shortness of the time, and the disadvantage of being finished almost from memory—the very imperfect outline, already mentioned, being the only *external* guide. It was this general excellence that encouraged the proposal of a full length figure—a proposal to which the artist gave his ready assent, stating that he had wished to undertake something of the kind, but did not consider it prudent, without any prospect of remuneration, to hazard the expense both of the block of stone and the loss of time. On this Mr. Auld offered to procure any stone from the neighboring quarries which the artist might judge fit for his purpose. Several days elapsed in this search; in the meantime, the matter was rather laughed at than encouraged; and some apprehensions of failure, and exposure to consequent comments, being expressed, "Perhaps," said the artist, endeavoring to reassure his friends, "I had just better try my hand at a head, as a specimen o' Tam." This being agreed to, he returned to Crosby churchyard, where he was then employed upon a grave-stone. The day following happened to be one of continued rain; and, finding that the water filled up his lines; probably, too, thinking more on "glorious Tam," than on the *memento mori* he was attempting to engrave, our artist resolved to take time by the forelock, and to set about the "specimen head" directly. Accordingly, pulling from the ruins of the church of Crosby a rabat of the doorway, as a proper material for his purpose, he sat himself down among the long rank grass covering the graves, and in that situation actually finished the head before rising. Nay, more, although the day has been described to us "as a downright pour," so total was his absorption in the work—so complete his insensibility to every thing else, that he declares himself to have been unconscious of

the "rattling showers," from the moment he commenced. Such is the power of genuine and natural enthusiasm in a favorite pursuit. This head, which contained, perhaps, more expression than that even of the present figure, decided the matter. Next day, the block requisite for a full-length of Tam o' Shanter, was brought into Ayr, a load for four stout horses, and placed in a proper workshop, within Cromwell's fort.

It may be interesting to mention a few particulars of the manner in which these figures have been composed and finished. "Tam" was selected by the artist as a subject for his chisel. The figure is understood to bear a strong traditional resemblance, to the well-known Douglass Graham, some forty years ago a renowned specimen of a Carrick farmer, and who, residing at Shanter, furnished to Burns the prototype of his hero.

—Souter Johnnie,
His antient, trusty, drouthie cronie—

is said to be a striking likeness of a living wight—a cobbler near Maybole; not that this individual sat for his portraiture, but that the artist appears to have wrought from the reminiscences of two interviews with which he was favored, after twice travelling "some lang Scotch miles," in order to persuade the said "souter" to transfer his body, by means of his pair of soles, from his own to the artist's studio. The bribe of two guineas a-week, exclusive of "half-mutchkins withouten score," proved, however, unavailing, and the cobbler remained firm to the last. By this refusal, "the birkie" has only become poorer by the said couple of guineas, and certain half-mutchkins drouthier," for so true has the eye of the sculptor proved, that every one is said instantly to recognise the cobbler's phiz and person. A strange perverseness, indeed, or fatality, or what you will, seems to have seized upon all the favored few selected as fitting archetypes for these admirable figures. For, Tam's "nether man" occasioning some anxiety in the perfecting of its sturdy symmetry, a carter, we believe, was laid hold of, and the *gamashins*, being pulled on for half-an-hour, Tam's right leg was finished in rivalry of the said gentleman's *sup-porter*. It appears to have been agreed upon that he should return at a fitting opportunity, having thus left Tam "hirpling;" but, in the interval, the story of the sitting unfortunately taking air, and the soubriquet of "Tam o' Shanter" threatening to attach to the lawful and Christian appellations of the man of carts, no inducement could again bring him within the unhallowed precincts of our sculptor's workroom. In like manner, though at a somewhat later period, while the artist was engaged upon the figure of the landlady, no persuasion could prevail upon one of the many "bonny lasses" who have given such celebrity to Ayr, to exhibit even the "fitting of their pearlyings" to Mr. Thom's gaze. One sonsy damsel, on being hard pressed to grant a sitting, replied, "Na, na, I've nae mind to be nicknamed 'landlady'; and, as for gudewife, twa speerings maun gang to that name."

It will, doubtless, excite the admiration of every one in the slightest degree conversant with the Arts, that these figures, so full of life, ease, and character, were thus actually executed without model, or drawing, or palpable archetype whatsoever. The artist, indeed, knows nothing of modelling; and so little of drawing, that we question if he would not find difficulty in making even a

tolerable sketch of his own work. The chisel is his modelling tool—his pencil—the only instrument of his art, in short, with which he is acquainted, but which he handles in a manner, we may say, almost unprecedented in the history of sculpture. This, however, is the minor part; for we think, nay, are sure, we discover in this dexterity of hand, in this unerring precision of eye, in this strong, though still untutored, conception of form and character—the native elements of the highest art. These primordial attributes of genius, by proper culture, may do honor to the country and to their possessor. At all events, instruction will refine and improve attempts in the present walk of art, even should study be unable to elevate attainment to a higher. Now, however, it would be not only premature, but unjust, to criticise these statues as regular labors of sculpture. They are to be regarded as wonderful, nay, almost miraculous, efforts of native, unaided, unlearned talent—as an approach to truth almost in spite of nature and of science; but they do not hold with respect to legitimate sculpture—the high-souled, the noblest, the severest of all arts—the same rank as, in painting, the works of the Dutch masters do as compared with the lofty spirits of the Romans—precisely for this reason, that while similar subjects are not only fit, but often felicitous, subjects for the pencil, they are altogether improper objects of sculptural representation.



NEW ZEALAND CHIEF.

It is a point of honor with a chief never to touch what belongs to those who have trusted themselves to his friendship, and against whom he has no claim for satisfaction on account of any old affront or outrage. To be supposed capable of doing so, would be felt by any of them as an intolerable imputation. We find a striking instance of this, to pass over many others that might be quoted, in the conduct of Totoro, who returned home to New Zealand from Port Jackson, along with Captain Cruise, in the *Dromedary*. It was thought necessary, during the passage, to take from this chief a box containing some gunpowder, which he had got with him, and to lodge it in the magazine until the ship arrived at New Zealand. "Though every exertion," says Captain Cruise, "was used, to explain the reason why he was requested to give it up, and the strongest assurances made that it should be restored hereafter, he either could not or

would not understand what was said to him. Upon parting with the property, which, next to his musket, was in his eyes the greatest treasure in the world, he fell into an agony of grief and despair which it was quite distressing to witness, repeatedly exclaiming, 'No good;' and, rolling himself up in his mat, he declined the conversation of every one. He remained in this state so long, that the powder was at length brought back; but he refused to take it, saying, 'that they might again put it in the magazine, since they must now be aware that he had not stolen it.'" Similar to that of Totoro, was the conduct of a chief whom Mr. Marsden met with on his first visit to New Zealand, and who was so much grieved and ashamed at the circumstance of one of his dependants having stolen some trifle from that gentleman, that he sat for two days and nights on the deck of the ship, and could not be prevailed upon to enter the cabin. The following engraving of a view in New Zealand, is from Cook's Voyage.



GENIUS AND INDUSTRY.

Whilst we believe that education is the greatest gift that can be conferred on a human creature, we are not sanguine enough to expect that its more general diffusion will increase the number of men of genius. There is a perversity in human nature which makes us relax our efforts at the moment when they might be rewarded with the most splendid success. It does not follow that a shepherd boy, who passes his long day on the side of a hill, and who acquires the principles of mechanics, or forms for himself a plan of the stars, shall make proportionate advancement if full opportunity of study be afforded to him.

Nor does it follow that a young man who teaches himself to read by the light of a shop window in the street, shall become a learned man when admitted to libraries and encouraged by applause.

We do not think the illustration a correct one, which represents the scholar as like the weary traveller who plods on contentedly through woods and over irregular ground which conceal the prospect, and who faints when he has ascended to the top of the hill and sees the whole extent of the road before him.

The truth seems rather to be, that energy of mind, like strength of body, must be acquired by exercise, and that the consciousness of desert in encountering difficulties, must be felt to enable us to accomplish any great work. Sir Joshua Reynolds has happily expressed this:—

"It is not uncommon to see young artists, whilst they are struggling with every obstacle in their way, exert themselves with such success as to outstrip competitors possessed of every means of improvement." The promising expectation which was formed on so much being done with so little means, has recommended them to a patron, who has supplied them with every convenience of study; from that time their industry and eagerness of pursuit have forsaken them; they stand still and see others rush before them.

"Such men are like certain animals, who will feed only where there is little provender, and that got at with great difficulty through the bars of a rack, but refuse to touch it where there is an abundance before them."

THE PROGRESS OF AMERICA DURING THE LAST CENTURY.

From the elevated position we now occupy, let us turn our eyes back on the history of the past century, to observe the progress of America since the birth of Washington, and the influence of his life and character on the destinies of his country and of mankind. What *was* his country? Eleven small British colonies (for Georgia had then no existence, and Delaware no separate name) were scattered along the shores of the Atlantic, within the present limits of the United States. They extended inland only to a short distance, their remotest outposts hardly reaching the foot of the Alleghany Mountains. Behind them was an unexplored wilderness, from the recesses of which, savage tribes, trained to war and plunder, were ever ready, at the instigation of an ambitious chief, or the temptation of a favorable opportunity, to spring forth on their inhabitants, without warning and without mercy. On the north and on the south were the colonies of France and Spain, both ancient rivals of Great Britain, and, according to the universal opinion of that age, its natural as well as hereditary enemies; so that every contest between those nations brought war home to the doors of the colonists, who thus suffered from all the intrigue of European policy. From a "Report of the Lords of Trade," it appears that wool, flax, and hemp were raised in small quantities by the farmers, and wrought into coarse cloth and ropes, in their own dwellings, for their own use. Besides these household manufactures, and a number of establishments for refining sugar, for distilling, and for tanning, there were several forges and furnaces for making iron, and in all America, one sitting mill, one nail mill, and one paper mill, the last of which produced paper enough to sell for nearly a thousand dollars a year. The inhabitants of the northern colonies also had recently begun to make hats, and had even exported some, of which great complaints were made by the hatters of London, as interfering with their business. Parliament "diverting the thoughts of the colonists" from manufacturing and exporting the produce of their soil, enacted under severe penalties, that neither hats nor wool, nor any manufactures of wool produced in America, should be water-borne, or laden in any vehicle or on any animal for transportation, even within the colonies themselves; and that every sitting mill should be abated as a common nuisance.

Only two of the colonies had the right of choosing their own chief magistrates. The others had governors appointed in England, either by the crown

or by the proprietors of the colony, who possessed also respectively the right to annul, within a limited time, any laws passed by the Colonial Assemblies. The colonies were not bound together by any other tie than their common allegiance to the British crown.

Such was America; a number of feeble, scattered colonies, surrounded by enemies, disunited, dependent. Possessing, indeed, in its habits of industry and enterprise, in its domestic, civil, literary, and religious institutions, the germs of its subsequent greatness, but faintly developed; crushed beneath the oppressions of the colonial system, and in this part of the country still languishing under the influence of that connexion of civil and ecclesiastical power, which is every where degrading to religion, and dangerous to liberty. Such was America! Look on it now. What do you behold? One great, united, powerful, prosperous, free people, without a master, without an enemy, without a rival. The Alleghanies, which were then your utmost limits, are now in the midst of your population; the vast region beyond them, at that time a wilderness, is crowded with villages, and towns, and cities, swarming with inhabitants, burdened with plenty; the Mississippi, whose origin and course were not then known, is now a common highway; and the still more remote territory, then unexplored, may I not say undiscovered, is now entirely subjected to your laws. Your manufactures, relieved from the monopoly of the colonial system, have extended with inconceivable rapidity; your commerce peoples the ocean; enterprise and industry in every pursuit are all unshackled; and under the protection of a free government and equal laws, the institutions then so feebly developed, have shut up, and spread abroad, and covered the whole land, and blossomed and brought forth fruit abundantly—the fruit of knowledge and virtue.

But general expressions can give no idea of our progress. Fancy itself flags, and lingers, and halts behind the truth. Look only at our population. A hundred years ago, it did not exceed 700,000. At this day, it is more than 13,000,000. Consider, too, the difference between our progress in this respect, during the first half and the last half of the century just ended. The first fifty years added to the existing population 2,000,000, making in all nearly 3,000,000 of inhabitants in 1782. The last fifty years have added to that number more than 10,000,000. The whole shipping of America a century ago, was not 100,000 tons. At present, though the revolutionary war almost swept it from the ocean, and it suffered greatly in the last, it approaches 2,000,000 tons. In the whale fishery alone, 1,300 tons only of shipping were then employed, and it now gives occupation to 90,000 tons. Our whole exports and imports, which did not exceed one million sterling, have increased twenty-fold. There are no sufficient data for estimating our progress in other respects; but who can look around him without perceiving, that in domestic comfort, in internal improvements, in wealth, in knowledge, and in all the arts of life, it has been far more rapid even than in population or in trade; and that we have advanced with constantly accelerated speed during the whole period. It began with achieving the work of a century in a generation, and it seems to end with crowding the work of generations into single years.—Gray.



CITY OF MONTREAL.

We are indebted to Bouchette's elaborate work on the British Possessions, for the view of Montreal, presented above; as also for the following facts relating to that city.

The city of Montreal stands on the south side of the island of the same name, in latitude $45^{\circ} 31'$ north, and longitude $73^{\circ} 34'$ west. The second city of the province in point of importance, it is undoubtedly the first with respect to situation, local advantages, and superiority of climate; its form is a prolonged square, that, with the suburbs, covers about one thousand and twenty acres of ground, although within the walls of the old fortifications the contents of the area did not exceed one hundred acres.

In its present state, Montreal certainly merits the appellation of a handsome city. It is divided into the upper and lower town, although the elevation of one above the other is scarcely perceptible; these are again subdivided into wards. The streets are airy, and the new ones, particularly, of a commodious width; some of them running the whole length of the town, parallel to the river, intersected by others at right angles. The houses are for the most part built of a grayish stone, many of them large, handsome, and in a modern style: sheet-iron or tin is the universal covering of the roofs.

Montreal, as it is at present, containing a population of about thirty thousand souls, rivals the capital of Canada in many respects, and as a commercial emporium certainly surpasses it: seated near the confluence of several large rivers with the St. Lawrence, it receives by their means the productions of the best settled and also the most distant parts of the district, those of the fertile province of Upper Canada, as well as from the United States. Possessing these combined attractions, it is by no means unreasonable to infer, that in the lapse of a few years, it will become the most flourishing and prosperous city of the British North

American dominions; and Quebec, viewed as a military position, may always be looked upon as an impregnable bulwark to them. The harbor of Montreal is not very large, but always secure for shipping during the time the navigation of the river is open. Vessels drawing fifteen feet water can lie close to the shore, near the market gate, to receive or discharge their cargoes; the general depth of water is from three to four and a half fathoms, with very good anchorage every where between the Market-gate Island and the shore: in the spring this island is nearly submerged by the rising of the river; but still it is always useful in protecting ships anchored within it from the violent currents of that period, and at other times serves as a convenient spot for repairing boats, water-casks, and performing other indispensable works.

The environs of Montreal exhibit as rich, as fertile, and as finely diversified a country as can well be imagined. The space near the town, and all round the lower part of the mountain, is chiefly occupied by orchards and garden grounds; the latter producing vegetables of every description, and excellent in quality.

CREDULITY IN INDIA.

An amusing anecdote, related by Bishop Heber, gives us a good idea of the foibles and ignorance of one of the petty princes of India, and the rashness of the minister who managed his affairs. The fondness of the king for mechanics (says the bishop), led him to try some experiments, in which he fell in with a Mussulman engineer of pleasing address and ready talent, as well as considerable, though unimproved, genius for such pursuits. The king took so much delight in conversing with this man, that the minister began to fear a rising competitor, as well knowing that the meanness of his own birth

and functions had been no obstacle to his advancement. He therefore sent the engineer word—"if he were wise, to leave Lucknow." The poor man did so, removed to a place about ten miles down the river, and set up a shop there. The king, on inquiring after his humble friend, was told that he was dead of cholera; ordered a gratuity to be sent to his widow and children, and no more was said. Some time after, however, the king sailed down the river in his brig of war, as far as the place where the new shop stood. He was struck with the different signs of neatness and ingenuity which he observed in passing, made his men draw in to shore, and, to his astonishment, saw the deceased engineer, who stood trembling, and with joined hands, to receive him. After a short explanation, he ordered him to come on board, returned in high anger to Lucknow, and calling the minister, asked him again if it were certain such a man was dead. "Undoubtedly," was the reply; "I myself ascertained the fact, and conveyed your majesty's bounty to the widow and children." "Harumzada," said the king, bursting into a fury, "look there, and never see my face more!" The vizier turned round, and saw how matters were circumstanced. With a terrible glance, which the king could not see, but which spoke volumes to the poor engineer, he imposed silence on the latter; then turning round again to his master, stopping his nose, and with many muttered exclamations of "God be merciful!" "Satan is strong!" "In the name of God, keep the devil from me!" he said, "I hope your majesty has not touched the horrible object." "Touch him," said the king, "the sight of him is enough to convince me of your rascality." "Istufirallah!" said the favorite; "and does not your majesty perceive the strong smell of a dead carcass?" The king still stormed; but his voice faltered, and curiosity and anxiety began to mingle with his indignation. "It is certain, refuge of the world," resumed the minister, "that your majesty's late engineer, with whom be peace! is dead and buried; but your slave knoweth not who has stolen his body from the grave, or what vampire it is who now inhabits it, to the terror of all good Mussulmans. Good were it that he were run through with a sword before your majesty's face, if it were not unlucky to shed blood in the auspicious presence. I pray your majesty dismiss us: I will see him conducted back to his grave; it may be that when that is opened, he may enter it again peaceably." The king, confused and agitated, knew not what to say or order. The attendants led the terrified mechanic out of the room; and the vizier, throwing him a purse, swore, with a horrible oath, that "if he did not put himself upon the other side of the company's frontier before the next morning, if he ever trod the earth again, it should be as a vampire indeed." This is, I think, no bad specimen of the manner in which an absolute sovereign may be persuaded out of his own senses.

SONG.

She died in beauty!—like a rose
Blown from its parent stem:
She died in beauty!—like a pearl
Dropped from some diadem.
She died in beauty!—like a lay
Along a moonlit lake;
She died in beauty!—like the song
Of birds amid the brake.
She died in beauty!—like the snow

On flowers dissolved away;
She died in beauty!—like a star
Lost on the brow of day.
She lives in glory!—like Night's gems
Set round the silver moon;
She lives in glory!—like the sun
Amid the blue of June!



ANTONIO CANOVA.

Antonio Canova, one of the greatest sculptors of modern times, was born on the first of November, 1757, at Passagno, an obscure village situated amid the recesses of the hills of Asobano, where these form the last undulations of the Venetian Alps, as they subside into the plains of Treviso. At three years of age he was deprived of both parents. The father and grandfather of the artist followed the occupation of stone cutters. The early years of Canova were passed in study, and the bias of his mind was to sculpture. In his ninth year he executed two small shrines of Carrara marble, which are still extant. He was patronized by the patrician family, Faliero of Venice, by whom, at the age of thirteen, he was placed under Bernardi, a sculptor of considerable eminence. In consequence of the death of his master, he was placed under Bernardi's nephew, with whom he continued about a year, and then commenced business on his own account. The kindness of some monks supplied him with his first workshops, where for four years he labored with the greatest industry. He determined to study from nature, and devoted a portion of his time to anatomy, which he considered as the secret of his art. He received orders for various groups, and his merits and reputation being pretty generally recognised, he turned his attention to the more classic banks of the Tiber, for which he set out at the commencement of his 22d year. Previous to his departure the Venetian senate granted him a pension for three years, amounting to 60*l.* per annum. The work which first established his fame at Rome, was Theseus vanquishing the Minotaur, which was regarded with rapturous enthusiasm. His next undertaking was a monument in honor of Clement the XIV. which occupied him four years, and was opened to public inspection in 1787. Our limits will not permit us even to enumerate his various productions, all of which were of the highest order. The last performance which issued from his hand was a colossal bust of his friend the Count Cicognana. He expired at Venice, on the 13th October, 1822, at the age of 65

The most distinguished funeral honors were paid to his remains, which were deposited in a temple of his own erecting at Passagno, on the 25th of the same month.

TRUST TO YOURSELF.

This is a glorious principle for the industrious and trading classes of the community; and yet the philosophy of it is not perhaps understood so well as it ought to be.

There is hardly any thing more common in the country than to hear men spoken of who originally, or at some period of their lives, were rich, but were ruined by "*security*"—that is, by becoming bound to too great an extent for the engagements of their neighbors. This must arise in a great measure from an imperfect understanding of the question; and it therefore seems necessary that something should be said in explanation of it.

I would be far from desiring to see men shut up their hearts against each other, and each stand, in the panoply of his own resolutions, determined against every friendly appeal whatsoever. It is possible, however, to be not altogether a churl, and yet to take care lest we be tempted into an exertion of benevolence, dangerous to ourselves, while it is of little advantage to our friends.

Notwithstanding the many ties which connect a man with society, he nevertheless bears largely imprinted on his forehead the original doom, that he must chiefly be dependent on his own labor for subsistence. It is found by all men of experience, that, in so far as one trusts to his own exertions solely, he will be apt to flourish; and, in so far as he leans and depends upon others, he will be the reverse. Nothing can give so good a *general* assurance of well-doing as the personal activity of the individual, day by day exerted for his own interest. If a man, on the contrary, suddenly finds, in the midst of such a career, a prospect of some patronage which seems likely to enrich him at once, or if he falls into the heritage of some antiquated claims to property or title, which he thinks it necessary to prosecute, it is ten to one that he declines from that moment, and is finally ruined. The only true way to make a happy progress through this world, is to go on in a dogged, persevering pursuit of one good object, neither turning to the right nor to the left, making our business as much as possible our pleasure, and not permitting ourselves to awake from our *dream of activity*—not permitting ourselves to *think that we have been active*—till we suddenly find ourselves at the goal of our wishes, with fortune almost unconsciously within our grasp
Chambers.

ART OF WRITING.

Mr. Mariner, in the account of his visit to the Tonga Islands, gives an interesting anecdote of a native's astonishment at the art of writing. Mr. Mariner, shortly after the commencement of his captivity among these savages, had, in the hope of thereby obtaining his liberty, written a letter, with a solution of gunpowder, on a piece of paper which he obtained from one of the natives; and he confided it to the care of a chief, with directions that it should be given to the captain of any ship which might appear on the coast. Finow, the king, however, having heard of this transaction, his suspicions were excited, and he immediately sent to the

chief for the letter, and obtained it. "When it was put into his hands," the narrative proceeds, "he looked at it on all sides; but not being able to make any thing of it, he gave it to Jeremiah Higgins, who was at hand, and ordered him to say what it meant: Mr. Mariner was not present. Higgins took the letter, and translating part of it into the Tonga language, judiciously represented it to be merely a request to any English captain that might arrive to interfere with Finow for the liberty of Mr. Mariner and his countrymen: stating that they had been kindly treated by the natives, but nevertheless wished to return, if possible, to their native country. * * * This mode of communicating sentiments was an inexplicable puzzle to Finow; he took the letter again and examined it, but it afforded him no information. He considered the matter a little within himself; but his thoughts reflected no light upon the subject. At length he sent for Mr. Mariner, and desired him to write down something; the latter asked what he would chose to have written; he replied, put down me; he accordingly wrote '*Fee-now*' (spelling it according to the strict English orthography); the chief then sent for another Englishman who had not been present, and commanding Mr. Mariner to turn his back and look another way, he gave the man the paper, and desired him to read what that was: he accordingly pronounced aloud the name of the king, upon which Finow snatched the paper from his hand, and, with astonishment, looked at it, turned it round, and examined it in all directions: at length he exclaimed, 'this is neither like myself nor any body else! where are my legs? how do you know it to be I?' and then, without stopping for any attempt at an explanation, he impatiently ordered Mr. Mariner to write something else, and thus employed him for three or four hours in putting down the names of different persons, places, and things, and making the other man read them. This afforded extraordinary diversion to Finow, and to all the men and women present, particularly as he now and then whispered a little love anecdote, which was strictly written down, and audibly read by the other, not a little to the confusion of one or other of the ladies present; but it was all taken in good humor, for curiosity and astonishment were the prevailing passions. How their names and circumstances could be communicated, through so mysterious a channel, was altogether past their comprehension. Finow at length thought he had got a notion of it, and explained to those about him it was very possible to put down a mark or sign of something that had been seen, both by the writer and reader, and which should be mutually understood by them; but Mr. Mariner immediately informed him, that he could write down any thing that he had never seen; the king directly whispered to him to put Toogoo Ahoo (the King of Tonga, whom he and Toobo Nuha had assassinated many years before Mr. Mariner's arrival). This was accordingly done, and the other read it; when Finow was yet more astonished, and declared it to be the most wonderful thing he had ever heard of. He then desired him to write 'Tarky' (the chief of the garrison of Bea, whom Mr. Mariner and his companions had not yet seen; this chief was blind in one eye). When 'Tarky' was read, Finow inquired whether he was blind or not; this was putting writing to an unfair test! and Mr. Mariner told him that he had only written down the sign standing for the sound of his name

and not for the description of his person. He was ordered, in a whisper, to write, then '*Tarky, blind in his left eye,*' which was done, and read by the other man, to the increased astonishment of every body. Mr. Mariner then told him, that in several parts of the world messages were sent to great distances through the same medium, and, being folded and fastened up, the bearer could know nothing of the contents; and that the histories of whole nations were thus handed down to posterity, without spoiling by being kept (as he chose to express himself). Finow acknowledged this to be a most noble invention, but added that it would not do at all for the Tonga Islands; that there would be nothing but disturbances and conspiracies, and he should not be sure of his life, perhaps, another month."



• NEST OF THE CANARY.

The nest of the canary is built, in its native regions, in the fork of an orange-tree. When kept in a greenhouse in this country, it will make a similar choice, seeming to be pleased with the perfume of the orange flowers, as well as of myrtle. It has been remarked, that the hen canary continues adding to the brim of the nest after she begins to lay, till the time of beginning to hatch, as do the humming birds and several others. Canaries are fond of lining their nests with the hair of deer or rabbits, which, like the chaffinch, they seem to prefer to down

Steam-Engines.—Engineers estimate the force of steam-engines by a measure which they term the horse-power. This power is the force required to raise or move 528 cubic feet of water, which weighs 33,000 lbs., through one foot of space per minute. The power of a man may be assumed equal to that of raising 60 cubic feet, which weighs 3750 lbs. avoirdupois, through the space or height of one foot in a minute, or a proportionate weight to any other height, so that the height multiplied by the weight may give the product 3750 lbs. A stout laborer will continue to work at this rate during eight hours per day. A day's labor of a man working thus continuously may therefore be reckoned at 23,800 cubic feet of water being raised one foot high; and in this proportion a one-hundred-and-fourteen-horse power is equal to the power of about one thousand men. The horse-power of the steam-engine, thus assumed, is beyond the usual power of an ordinary horse, a two-horse power being equal in reality to that of three horses. For instance, the power of a ten-horse steam-engine is equal to the force exerted by fifteen horses acting together; and if the engine work night and day, while each horse can only work during eight hours out of the twenty-four, it will really perform the work of forty-five horses; for it would require that number of horses to be kept

to execute the same quantity of work. Any statement of the comparative cost of steam, horse, and manual labor, can be, of course, only an approximation to the truth, as this cost must necessarily depend on the prices of fuel consumed by steam-engines, and on the expense of their wear and tear, of the keep of horses, and of the wages of manual labor—all of which vary with circumstances, and that not in a relative proportion. Data for ascertaining this point have been given by different writers. It is estimated that a heavy horse, working ten hours, will consume 15 lbs. of oats and 14 lbs. of hay in the course of the day. An engine of thirty-horse power, working ten hours, will consume about 2952 lbs.; or, as nearly as possible, one chaldron of Newcastle coals.

The Ruling Passion.—The Duke of Ormond, who was a true pattern of politeness, was visited, a few moments before his death, by a German baron, who was also one of the politest men of his country. The duke, feeling himself dying, desired to be conveyed to his arm-chair; when, turning towards the baron, he said: "Excuse me sir, if I should make some grimaces in your presence, for my physician tells me, that I am at the point of death." "Ah, my lord duke!" replied the baron, "I beg that you will not put yourself under the least constraint on my account."

The Chinese Gong.—Among the most curious of the Chinese manufactures in metal is the far-famed gong, the composition of which is said to be tin and copper in certain proportions, to which in some cases a small quantity of silver is added. The secret of annealing the alloy in such a way as to admit of its being hammered was discovered some years since in France, where gongs are now manufactured. Owing to some peculiarity in the composition, the metal in the state we see it is uncommonly short or brittle, and this property for many years defied the ingenuity of the workmen who attempted to hammer it. It was at length found that by heating the metal to a red heat and plunging it into cold water, it was rendered malleable, and when the process of hammering was completed, it was only necessary to suffer it to cool gradually in order to restore its brittleness. The sonorous quality of the gong is well known, and it has been introduced with success on board ships to be used in foggy weather, when a bell is scarcely audible. The Chinese prohibit the exportation, as well as that of all military implements whatever. The gong constitutes an indispensable instrument in the frightful discords of a Chinese orchestra; and is always a symbol of official rank preceding the mandarins when going from place to place with their attendants.

In boats, flat and inferior gongs are used for the purpose of saluting, and in the shops at Canton may be seen instruments of any size, from the small disc of a few circles, used by beggars, to those of two feet in diameter.

Lightning.—In Virginia, the life of a stage driver was evidently preserved during a recent thunder storm, by the accidental circumstance of his having a silk handkerchief in the crown of his hat. The lightning killed three horses near him, shivered to pieces a stable near the spot and killed a man who stood in the door, knocked down the driver and stunned him so that he lay sometime insensible: his hat was severed to pieces, and the silk handkerchief scorched: he complained of soreness of the breast, but was entirely free from any pain about the head, and exhibited no traces of the lightning about his body.

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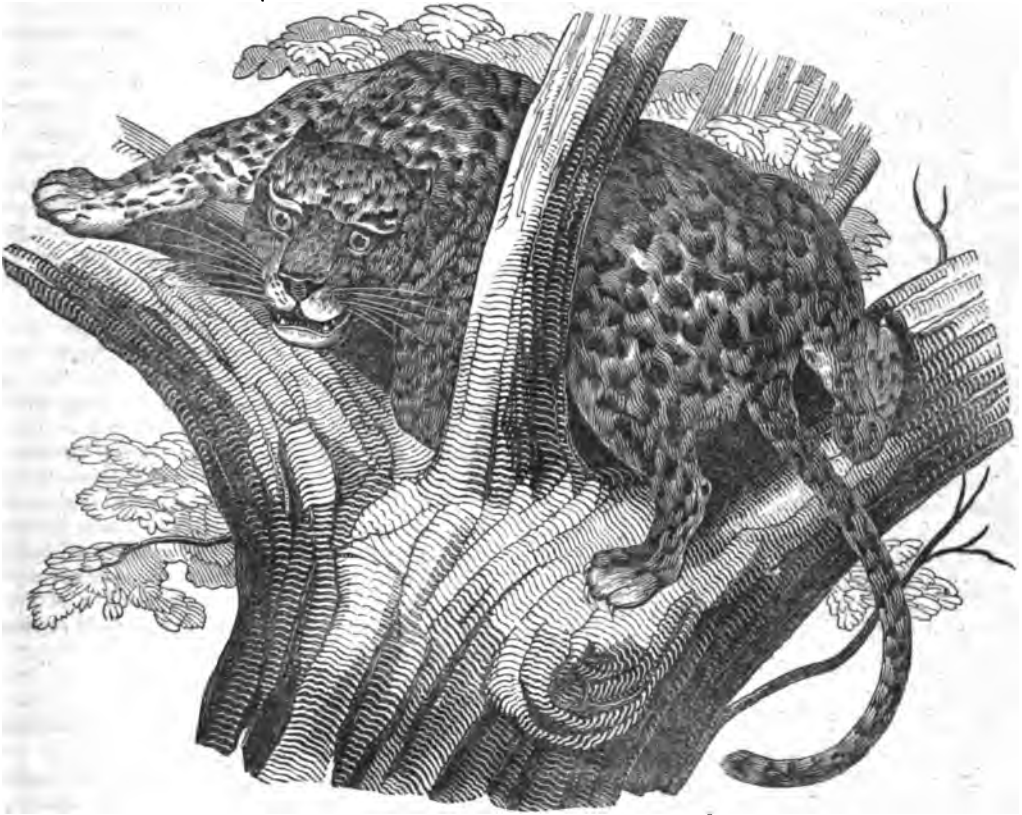
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VOL. 1.



LEOPARD HUNTING.

The leopard of Southern Africa is known among the Cape colonists by the name of *tiger*; but is, in fact, the real leopard, the *felis jubata* of naturalists. It differs from the panther of Northern Africa in the form of its spots, in the more slender structure of its body, and in the legs not being so long in proportion to its size. In watching for his prey the leopard crouches on the ground, with his fore paws stretched out and his head between them, his eyes rather directed upwards. His appearance in his wild state is exceedingly beautiful, his motions in the highest degree easy and graceful, and his agility in bounding among the rocks and woods quite amazing. Of this activity no person can have any idea by seeing these animals in the cages in which they are usually exhibited in this country, humbled and tamed as they are by confinement and the damp cold of our climate.

The leopard is chiefly found in the mountainous districts of South Africa, where he preys on such of the antelopes as he can surprise, on young baboons, and on the rock badgers or rabbits. He is very much dreaded by the Cape farmers also, for his ravages among the flocks, and among the young foals and calves in the breeding season.

The leopard is often seen at night in the villages of the negroes on the west coast; and being considered a sacred animal, is never hunted, though children and women are not unfrequently destroyed by him. In the Cape Colony, where no such res-

pect is paid him, he is shier and much more in awe of man. But though in South Africa he seldom or never ventures to attack mankind, except when driven to extremity, (unless it be some poor Hottentot child now and then that he finds unguarded,) yet in remote places, his low, half-smothered growl is frequently heard at night, as he prowls around the cottage or the kraal, as the writer of this notice has a hundred times heard it. His purpose on such occasions is to break into the sheep-fold, and in this purpose he not unfrequently succeeds, in spite of the troops of fierce watch-dogs which every farmer keeps to protect his flocks.

The leopard, like the hyæna, is often caught in traps constructed of large stones and timber, but upon the same principle as a common mouse-trap. When thus caught, he is usually baited with dogs, in order to train them to contend with him, and seldom dies without killing one or two of his canine antagonists. When hunted in the fields, he instinctively betakes himself to a tree, if one should be within reach. In this situation it is exceedingly perilous to approach within reach of his spring; but at the same time, from his exposed position, he becomes an easy prey to the shot of the huntsman.

The South African leopard, though far inferior to the lion or Bengal tiger in strength and intrepidity, and though he usually shuns a conflict with man, is nevertheless an exceedingly active and

furious animal, and when driven to desperation becomes a truly formidable antagonist. The Cape colonists relate many instances of frightful and sometimes fatal encounters between the hunted leopard and his pursuers. The following is a specimen of these adventures. It occurred in 1822, when the present writer was in the interior of the colony, and is here given as it was related to him by an individual who knew the parties engaged in it.

Two African farmers, returning from hunting the hartebeest, (*antelope bubalis*), roused a leopard in a mountain ravine, and immediately gave chase to him. The leopard at first endeavored to escape by clambering up a precipice; but being hotly pressed, and wounded by a musket-ball, he turned upon his pursuers with that frantic ferocity peculiar to this animal on such emergencies, and springing on the man who had fired at him, tore him from his horse to the ground, biting him at the same time on the shoulder, and tearing one of his cheeks severely with his claws. The other hunter seeing the danger of his comrade, sprang from his horse and attempted to shoot the leopard through the head; but, whether owing to trepidation, or the fear of wounding his friend, or the quick motions of the animal, he unfortunately missed. The leopard, abandoning his prostrate enemy, darted with redoubled fury upon his second antagonist, and so fierce and sudden was his onset, that before the boor could stab him with his hunting-knife, the savage beast struck him on the head with his claws, and actually tore the scalp over his eyes. In this frightful condition the hunter grappled with the leopard; and, struggling for life, they rolled together down a steep declivity. All this passed far more rapidly than it can be described in words. Before the man who had been first attacked could start to his feet, and seize his gun, they were rolling one over the other down the bank. In a minute or two he had reloaded his gun, and rushed forward to save the life of his friend. But it was too late. The leopard had seized the unfortunate man by the throat, and mangled him so dreadfully, that death was inevitable; and his comrade (himself severely wounded) had only the melancholy satisfaction of completing the destruction of the savage beast, already exhausted with the loss of blood from several deep wounds by the desperate knife of the expiring huntsman.

MANUFACTORIES IN METAL.

Although the globe on which we live presents but few traces of metallic veins on its surface, and at the period of its creation probably presented even fewer than it does at present, it is, nevertheless, an undoubted fact, that so soon, and progressively, as what may be called the arts of life took place of the primitive rudeness of nature, mankind appear to have discovered and turned to account the various metals within their reach. Nor should the observation, however trite, be discarded, that it is a striking illustration of the providence of the Creator, that those metals which are the most useful are likewise the most abundant, though it must at the same time be remarked they are the most difficult of access.

Mineralogists have started the puzzling question—Whether all the mineral treasures which have been extracted from, and those at present existing in, the bowels of the earth, were formed like the

materials amidst which they mostly lie, at the creation, or whether they may not, at least in many cases, have been the production of subsequent periods, either resulting from some of those singular phenomena, which are obviously attributable to a deluge, or from chymical changes perpetually going on according to fixed laws throughout all the regions of nature with which we are acquainted?

With respect to the existence of gold as a primary element of our globe, we appear to have the affirmative testimony of Moses in the second chapter of Genesis, where, mentioning the situation of Eden, he likewise describes the four heads of the river by which the garden was watered, and says—"The name of the first was Pison, that is it which compasseth the whole land of Havilah, where there is gold, and the gold of that land is good." This is certainly the earliest instance on record in which mention is made of the existence of any metal.

The presence of gold, silver, lead, and probably copper, must, in the earliest times, have become, in various ways, too obvious to allow the art of smelting the ores to have remained long undiscovered. The detection of virgin pieces, or the accidental effects of fire upon the more fusible ores, are circumstances which account at once for the early notions and strange fictions which exist among the ancients on this subject; especially the natural and poetical idea of the conflagration of forests by the rubbing of trees against one another during a high wind, and the consequent fluxion of some of the metal from ores lying exposed on or near the surface.

POPULAR INFORMATION ON SCIENCE.

NO. II. ATTRACTION.

Before proceeding farther, it may be necessary to inform the reader of the manner in which gravitation operates on its amplest scale in regulating the movements of the unnumbered orbs which compose the system of the universe. All bodies have a tendency to continue in the state of *motion* or of *rest* in which they are put. In other words, bodies do not acquire motion, nor lose motion, nor change the kind or degree of their motion, unless some force or another be applied to them. This property, as it may be termed, is called in scientific language, the *inertia* of matter. For instance, when an arrow is shot from a bow, it would proceed onward through the infinity of space to all eternity, if some force did not curb its speed, and finally draw it to the earth. And what power is this? Plainly that of attraction. Besides, there is the resistance which the air offers to every body heavier than itself passing through it. Now, space originally was a vast vacuity, we shall suppose, in which there being no matter, there could exist none of the laws of matter. When the Divine Creator brought into existence our own system, to take a familiar instance, he placed the sun in the centre, and endowed it, so to speak, with power and authority over all the other bodies within its range; they were compelled to pay obeisance to it like the surrounding sheaves to the central one in Joseph's dream. The lesser or subordinate orbs may be supposed, for the sake of illustration, to have been hurled from the plastic hands of the Deity in a straightforward course, in which they would forever have moved, had not the sun possessed the power of attracting them to its centre, and compelling

them to revolve round him. There was just as much attraction given as would keep them in their proper orbits of motion, and just that degree of impetus imparted which would prevent them from coalescing with the sun on the one hand, or departing beyond the sphere of his attraction on the other. With what wisdom, and yet with what simplicity, have not the "worlds been framed." To each of them the Creator has traced out its course. "Thus far shalt thou go, and no farther." And they cannot for a moment cross the boundaries he has assigned.

"Lightnings and storms his mighty word obey,
And planets roll where he has marked the way."

To this principle we are also indebted for the flux and reflux of the tides, which, as is well known, are caused by the moon's attraction

"For this the moon through heaven's blue concave glides,
And into motion charms the expanding tides;
While earth impetuous round her axle rolls,
Exalts her watery zone and sinks the poles."—*Falconer*.

It is also the cause of the roundness of our earth, of the moon, the planets, and the sun itself. Hence it may be inferred that originally all matter was, to a certain extent, in a fluid state, and that at the divine behest the atoms were endowed with attractive qualities, by which they were impelled to a common centre; and thus the congregated masses assumed a globular form. At New South Wales, which is situated nearly opposite to England on the earth's surface, planets hang and stones fall towards the centre of the globe, just as they do here. And the people there are standing with their feet towards us; hence they are called our antipodes, from two Greek words—*anti* opposite, and *pōdēs* the feet. A plummet suspended near the side of a mountain will be attracted to it in a degree exactly proportioned to its magnitude. This fact was ascertained by Dr. Maskeleyne near the mountain Shehallion in Scotland. But the plummet was not so strongly attracted to the mountain as it was to the earth, because the magnitude of the latter was so much greater than that of the former. Let it always be kept in view that it is size, in connexion with distance, which determines the force of gravitation, and this may be illustrated by a few familiar facts.

A falling body receives fresh velocity every moment of its descent, while a body projected into the air loses velocity every moment of its ascent. Both propositions are illustrated by a very simple experiment. Sling a stone into the air, and the eye will be found incapable of following it till it has reached a certain height, when we can easily observe its progress. Upwards it rises slower and slower, and for a moment before it has reached and after it has passed its climax, there is scarcely any motion perceptible; just as the tide at the full appears for a moment neither to ebb nor to flow. Downwards the stone descends, however, gathering fresh velocity in every inch of its declination, until, as it approaches nearer to the earth, the eye can scarcely follow it. This may, no doubt, be partly accounted for from the well known circumstance, that, to the eye, bodies seen at a distance seem to move slower than they do when we stand nearer to them. But, in our calculations, the fallacy arising from this circumstance is comparatively trifling. The propositions have not only been proved by the most incontestable philosophical experiments, but a few familiar facts, when recalled to memory, will settle the point. Let a ball drop from the hand, and it can be caught easily the first instant; let it accu-

mulate its motion, however, and the hand in vain pursues it. Take an instance on a vast scale—say the cataract of Niagara. Slow and heavily the broad column of waters bend over the precipice. It grows thinner and thinner, while its motion rapidly increases, until at last it plunges down the deep descent into the Phlegethon below, with irresistible force and swiftness, carrying all before it, and

"Rivalling the lightning's glance in rain and in speed."

All bodies, whatever their size or weight may be, should, from the law previously laid down, fall to the ground with the same speed. But this is found not to be the case. Here, for instance, is a ball of lead and a ball of cotton dropped from the same altitude at the same moment, and the lead has reached the earth sometime before the cotton. At first sight this would really appear to be quite consistent with the law of nature; because there being, we shall say, an hundred parts more matter in the bullet than in the cotton, it will be drawn to the earth with an hundred times more force, the power of gravitation being always proportioned to the quantity of matter. But again, if there be an hundred parts more matter in the lead than in the other body, it of course requires an hundred times more attraction to bring it down, for bodies destitute of this quality, as was formerly observed, have no tendency to fall; and every atom of every description of matter is drawn to the earth with the same degree of force. What is it, then, which prevents the cotton from reaching the ground at the same moment with the weightier body? The resistance of the air. The bulks are equal, and of course the resistance offered to both is alike, but the one having a far greater number of atoms, and hence a far greater power of attraction in proportion to its bulk than the other, it overcomes the resistance with greater ease, or, in other words, it has far greater strength to expend with only the same obstructions to overcome, and hence it reaches its destination sooner. For illustration's sake, let us suppose there are two boats to start for the same goal. They are of equal size, and of course their bows present the same breadth of surface to the water, and are alike impeded by it. In the one boat there are two rowers, we shall suppose, and in the other six. They all pull with equal skill and power, and it is unnecessary to say which boat will reach its destination first. But suppose that the boat which had the smallest number of rowers were to be reduced in size, weight, and resistance in a proportion which exactly counterbalanced the power which the other had over it, they would both arrive at the same time. Thus, if the cotton ball were reduced to the density of the lead, they would both reach the earth at the same time. The powers of attraction possessed by the two substances, without attenuating our simile to an invisible thinness, may be compared to the physical energy exercised in the two several boats, and though the comparison be not perfect in some respects, it is sufficiently so in others to give a forcible illustration of the subject. In fine, it is found that in the exhausted receiver of an air-pump, that is, a glass vessel deprived of its air, a feather and a guinea fall to the bottom at the same instant. It would not serve the end contemplated were the subject of gravitation to be pursued through all its labyrinths, and demonstrated by mathematical symbols. The point aimed at is rather to kindle up a desire for philosophical study, than to supply the

materials of it. We do not mean to conduct the reader through the promised land, but only point it out from Mount Pisgah.

Very little need be said respecting the *magnetic* and *electric* attractions. They act only on certain bodies, or under peculiar circumstances, giving rise to a distinct class of phenomena. In so far as they operate on masses of matter at sensible distances, they coincide with gravitation. When certain bodies are submitted to friction, they exhibit electrical attraction. If a dry glass rod or a stick of sealing wax is rubbed upon a piece of silk, and then presented to light bodies, such as bits of paper or straw, these latter are attracted to the other body. With respect to the magnet, it is universally known that it possesses the property of attracting particles of iron or steel. Its undeviating tendency to turn to a certain point of the earth is also well known. No phenomenon of nature has been so often pressed into the service of poetry in the shape of a simile as this. What poet for the last two hundred years has not used it?

"The obedient steel with living instinct moves,
And veers forever to the pole it loves."—*Darwin*.

It is unnecessary to enter more particularly into these subjects at present.

SIR ISAAC NEWTON.

The most distinguished philosopher of modern times, was born on the 25th of Dec. 1642, in the manor-house of Woolthorpe, a hamlet of Coltersworth, in Lincolnshire, England. The house stands in a pretty little hollow, on the west side of the valley of the river Witham, which rises at a short distance. This was the paternal estate of Newton, and here he was brought up and educated by his widowed mother. The following is a view of the house in which he was born.



"Every memorial of so great a man," says Dr. Brewster, in his *Life of Newton*, "has been preserved and cherished with peculiar veneration. His house at Woolthorpe has been religiously protected by Mr. Turner of Stoke Rocheford, the proprietor. Dr. Stukeley, who visited it in Sir Isaac's lifetime on the 13th October 1721, gives the following description of it in his letter to Dr. Mead, written in 1727: 'T is built of stone, as is the way of the country hereabouts, and a reasonable good one. They led me up stairs and showed me Sir Isaac's study, where I suppose he studied when in the country in his younger days, or perhaps when he visited his mother from the university. I observed the shelves were of his own making, being pieces of deal boxes which probably he sent his books and clothes down in on those occasions. There were some years ago two or three hundred books in it of his father-in-law, Mr. Smith, which Sir Isaac gave to Dr. Newton of our town.

"When the house was repaired in 1798, a tablet of white marble was put up by Mr. Turner in the room where Sir Isaac was born, with the following inscription:—

"Sir Isaac Newton, son of John Newton, Lord of the Manor of Woolthorpe, was born in this room on the 25th December, 1642."

Nature and Nature's laws lay hid in night,
God said "Let Newton be," and all was Light.

"The house is now occupied by a person of the name of John Wollerton. It still contains the two dials made by Newton, but the styles of both are wanting. The celebrated apple tree, the fall of one of the apples of which is said to have turned the attention of Newton to the subject of gravity, was destroyed by wind about four years ago; but Mr. Turner has preserved it in the form of a chair.

"The modesty of Sir Isaac Newton, in reference to his great discoveries, was not founded on any indifference to the fame which they conferred, or upon any erroneous judgment of their importance to science. The whole of his life proves, that he knew his place as a philosopher, and was determined to assert and vindicate his rights. His modesty arose from the depth and extent of his knowledge, which showed him what a small portion of nature he had been able to examine, and how much remained to be explored in the same field in which he had himself labored. In the magnitude of the comparison he recognised his own littleness; and a short time before his death he uttered this memorable sentiment: 'I do not know what I may appear to the world; but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the seashore, and diverting myself in now and then finding a smoother pebble or a prettier shell than ordinary, whilst the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me.'

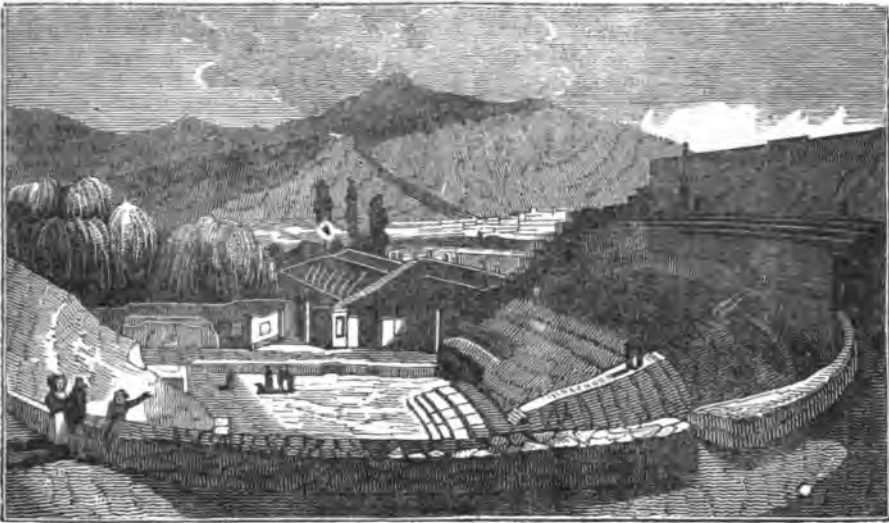
"In the religious and moral character of our author there is much to admire and imitate. While he exhibited in his life and writings an ardent regard for the general interests of religion, he was at the same time a firm believer in Revelation. He was too deeply versed in the Scriptures, and too much imbued with their spirit, to judge harshly of other men who took different views of them from himself. He cherished the great principles of religious toleration, and never scrupled to express his abhorrence of persecution, even in its mildest form. Immorality and impiety he never permitted to pass unproved; and when Dr. Halley ventured to say any thing disrespectful to religion, he invariably checked him and said, 'I have studied these things, —you have not.'"

Pronunciation.—The difficulty of applying rules to the pronunciation of our language may be illustrated in two lines, where the combination of the letters *ough*, is pronounced in no less than seven different ways, viz: as *o*, *oif*, *of*, *up*, *ow*, *oo*, and *ock*:—

Though the tough cough and hiccough plough me through,
O'er life's dark lough my course I still pursue.

It is computed that there are in the United States about 300 whale ships, employing about 1000 men, and which bring home every 30 months, about 227,960 barrels oil, the value of which is not far from \$4,000,000. The outfit of each ship, for 30 months' cruise, is from 15,000 to 20,000 dollars.

A writer, M. De Candolle, has given the following ages of trees. Whether they are common or extraordinary we do not know:—Elm, 335 years; Cypress, 350; Ivy, 450; Larch, 575; Orange, 630; Olive, 700; Oriental plane, 720; Cedar of Lebanon, 800; Oaks, 810, 1080, 1500; Liine, 1076, 1143; Yew, 1214, 1458, 2588, 2880; Toxodiam, 4000, 6000; Baobab, 5150. The last named tree is a native of Africa, and grows to the circumference of 60 feet.



THEATRE OF POMPEII.

The above engraving presents a view of the large theatre, which the recent excavations of Pompeii have brought to light. This theatre appears to have been entirely covered with marble; the benches were of marble; the orchestra was of marble; the scene with all its ornaments was also of marble; and yet of this profusion of marble only a few fragments remain. It appears, from an inscription found in it to have been erected, or much improved, by one Holconius Rufus. The above view represents this building as seen from one of the entrances leading to the orchestra, having on the right hand the scene. In the wall which supported the front of the stage are seven recesses, supposed to be devoted to the use of the musicians. In front is the entrance to the orchestra: above may be seen the six rows of steps which encircled it; then the cavea, despoiled of its marble, but still showing the lines of benches, and stairs dividing them into cunei, and the vomitoria, or doors of entrance. Still higher is the women's gallery, and above that the external wall, which never was entirely buried, and might have pointed out to any curious observer the exact situation of Pompeii.



The practice of concealing the face with a mask seems to have been very general with the ancient actors. We have not the means, nor would it be to the purpose, to describe the earliest form of the mask, or to trace its progress. Ultimately, it was

formed of brass, or some sonorous material, or the mouth at least lined with metal, so as to collect and reverberate the voice with something like the power of a speaking trumpet. It is difficult to convey the expression of a mask by an engraving. The preceding cut represents a tragic and grotesque mask, found among the excavations, and probably used in the theatre.

THE LEAF.—BY BISHOP HORNE.

We all fade, like a leaf.—*Isa. lxiv. 6.*

See the leaves around us falling,
Dry and withered to the ground;
Thus to thoughtless mortals calling,
In a sad and solemn sound.

Sons of Adam, once in Eden,
Blighted when like us he fell,
Hear the lecture we are reading,
'Tis, alas! the truth we tell.

Virgins, much, too much presuming
On your boasted white and red,
View us, late in beauty blooming,
Numbered now among the dead.

Gripping misers, nightly waking,
See the end of all your care;
Fled on wings of our own making,
We have left our owners bare.

Sons of honor, fed on praises,
Fluttering high in fancied worth,
Lo! the fickle air, that raises,
Brings us down to parent earth.

Learned sophas, in systems jaded,
Who for new ones daily call,
Cease, at length, by us persuaded,
Every leaf must have its fall.

Youths, though yet no losses grieve you,
Gay in health and manly grace,
Let not cloudless skies deceive you,
Summer gives to Autumn place.

Venerable sires, grown hoary,
Hither turn th' unwilling eye,
Think, amidst your falling glory
Autumn tells a winter nigh.

Yearly in our course returning,
Messengers of shortest stay,

Thus we preach, this truth concerning,
 "Heaven and earth shall pass away."

On the Tree of Life eternal,
 Man, let all thy hope be staid,
 Which alone, forever vernal,
 Bears a leaf that shall not fade.

LETTER FROM AN EMIGRANT.

A letter from a person who lately emigrated from Bristol to the United States of America, recently appeared in a Leeds newspaper, and from it the following extract is given, in the expectation of its being interesting to many of our readers.

"Though greatly reduced by my long voyage, it has been of great service to my health. I am now perfectly well, and have nothing of that cough I have been subject to. My beloved wife and dear children are all very well, and look more healthy than before we left England. This is the case, likewise, with all our friends and their children (three families from Bristol, who removed about the same time.) We are all very comfortable, and often meet together, and discuss, contrast, and compare things in America with those in England; on some points we agree in our likes and dislikes, and on some points differ very widely. On all material points, however, we fully agree—that this is the best *poor man's country*; the best to bring up and launch out a family; the best for persons of small incomes (if they can accommodate themselves to circumstances, and depend upon their own resources;) servants ('helps') may be had here, board and wages both considered, at an expense but little more than in England; but then the maid is as good as her mistress, the man as his master.

"Though to parents coming out here, if they have the common feelings of our nature, it must be a sacrifice of the pleasures of friendship, and at first an endurance of many inconveniences, yet their children will bless them for their self-denial; and I believe, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, parents will feel thankful they had sufficient nerve to come to this country. Parents have no difficulty in bringing up their children, and placing them out in business; nor need they fear their future prosperity. Here, also, there is far less temptation to vice of every kind—sobriety and good order prevail in a way unknown in England. The direct and indirect effects of temperance societies are truly astonishing. This true happiness may be found in England; but I believe the sum of happiness in America is infinitely greater than in England. The chief cause of sorrow and distress in England is *unknown here!* Here there is not the garb of poverty, nor the look of distress.

"It was a fine morning; I walked five miles before breakfast on a very good tow-path, with the canal on my right, and the Mohawk River on my left, with a pretty fertile country and varied scenery. It reminded me strongly of Hay, my native place. We met a very agreeable English gentleman on the aqueduct over the Mohawk. He had travelled extensively through the States, and was then on his return to England, with a view of bringing his family over. He was highly pleased with the country and the people, and said, 'the English will never believe America to be so happy and prosperous a country, unless they see for themselves.' This reminded me of what an English gentleman at New York said to me. He inquired if I intended to send a full account home of what I saw.

'Certainly,' was my reply. 'And do you,' he said, 'expect they will believe you?' 'Surely they will.' 'Take my word for it,' he said, 'they will not believe the one-half of what even you say.'

"We arrived at Schenectady about two o'clock; it is a pretty good town. There is a rail-road from Albany to this place, for steam-coaches, which go 14 miles an hour. Wednesday, at daylight, came in sight of Utica. This is a very handsome town, abounding with well-built churches, of the various denominations, with spires. I do not know in England so regular and good a town—not the semblance of poverty or poor-houses. I will give you present prices of provisions:—Fowls, 12½c. (a cent is a halfpenny) per couple; turkeys and geese, 25c. each; venison, very fine, 1½c. per lb.; beef, veal, and pork, 3c.; potatoes, 25c. per bushel, very good, but not so mealy as the English; butter, always good, 12½c., now considered very dear; apples, 25c. per bushel; cider, 1½ dollar per barrel of 32 gallons; flour, now high, 4½ dollars per barrel; corn, 20c. per bushel. The horses are generally good, and the oxen are fine large beasts for labor. Self supporting, or manual labor schools, are already established in many parts of the Union, and promise to be the means of diffusing more good than any other society established in modern times. These schools are promoted by the Baptists, who are a very numerous sect in America. I would just observe that young men desirous of being educated for the ministry, as well as others entering these schools, obtain a good classical and religious education. By their laboring at some trade on the premises four hours a day, they pay for their board, and one hour more for their education. Mechanics in this State get well paid. A working jeweller in the town of Newark gets 9½ dollars per week, besides board and lodging; and common carpenters and coopers get 20 dollars a month, besides board and lodging. When at New York, my friend Mr. Jennings told me, if 500 young women were to come over, they would immediately get into situations there: were many thousands to come over, they would find sufficient employment in the States, and get well paid for their services."

CAMPHOR.

Camphor, which is so much used for medical purposes, is likewise extensively employed in the composition of varnishes, especially in that of copal. It is the peculiar product of the root of a species of laurel, (*laurus camphorata*.) a tree growing in China, Japan, and several parts of India. The leaves of this plant stand upon a slender footstalk, and have an entire undulated margin running out into a point. Their upper surface is of a lively and shining green; the under part is of a yellowish green, and of a silky appearance; a few lateral nerves curve towards the margin, frequently terminating in small warts or excrescences—a circumstance peculiar to this species of laurel. The footstalks of the flowers do not come forth until the tree has attained considerable age and size. The flower stalks are slender, and branch at the top, dividing into very short stems, each supporting a single flower. This is white, and succeeded by a shining purple berry of the size of a pea. It is composed of a small kernel enclosed in a soft pulpy substance—having the aroma of cloves and camphor. The bark of the stem of the tree is outwardly somewhat rough; but on the inner surface it is smooth and

mucous, and therefore readily separated from the wood, which is dry and of a white color. Some travellers affirm that old trees contain camphor so abundantly that on splitting the trunk it is found in a form of large tears, so pure as not to require rectification. The usual method, however, of obtaining this substance is from the roots, pieces of which are put into an iron vessel furnished with a capital, or large head; this upper part is internally filled with cords of rice straw; the joinings are then luted, and the distillation proceeded upon. On the application of heat the camphor sublimes and attaches itself to the straw within the head. The Dutch purify the substance thus obtained by mixing an ounce of quick lime with every pound of the camphor, and subjecting it to a second sublimation in large glass vessels.

Camphor is well known as a white friable substance, having a peculiar aromatic odor, and a strong taste. Some chymists consider it as a concrete vegetable oil. It melts at a temperature of 288° , and boils at 400° Fahrenheit. Its specific gravity is less than that of water. It is very inflammable, burning with a white flame and smoke, and leaving no residue. Alcohol, ether, and oils dissolve it. The only indication whereby it appears that water acts upon camphor is that of acquiring its smell; it is said, however, that a Spanish surgeon has affected the solution in water by means of carbonic acid. Camphor may be burned as it floats on the surface of water. It is not altered by mere exposure to atmospheric air, but it is so extremely volatile that if in warm weather it is placed in an open vessel it evaporates completely. It dissolves in alcohol, and like the resins, is immediately precipitated again by the addition of water.

Camphor has been found to exist in numerous plants whence it may be obtained by distillation. Neumann and other chemists extracted it from the roots of zedoary, thyme, sage, the inula helenium, the anemone, the pasque flower, and some other vegetables. Experiment has shown that the plants whence it is extracted afford a much larger quantity of camphor when the sap has been suffered to pass to the concrete state by several months' drying.

This substance was very early known to the Eastern nations; it was introduced into Europe by the Arabians, but was entirely unknown to the ancient Greeks and Romans.

LOSS OF WEIGHT IN COOKING ANIMAL FOOD.

It is well known that, in whatever way the flesh of animals is prepared for food, a considerable diminution takes place in its weight. As it is a subject both curious and useful in domestic economy, we shall give the result of a set of experiments, which were actually made in a public establishment; they were not undertaken from mere curiosity, but to serve a purpose of practical utility.

28 Pieces of Beef, weighing 280 pounds, lost in boiling, 73 pounds 14 ounces. Hence the loss by beef in boiling was about 26 pounds and a half, in 100 pounds.

19 Pieces of Beef, weighing 190 pounds, lost in roasting, 61 pounds 2 ounces. The weight of beef lost in roasting appears to be 32 pounds in each hundred.

9 Pieces of Beef, weighing 90 pounds, lost in

baking, 27 pounds. Weight lost by Beef in baking, 30 pounds in each hundred.

27 Legs of Mutton, weighing 260 pounds, lost in boiling, and by having the shank-bones taken off, 62 pounds 4 ounces. The shank-bones were estimated at 4 ounces each, therefore, the loss in boiling was 55 pounds 8 ounces. The loss of weight in legs of Mutton in boiling, is 21 pounds and one-third in each hundred.

35 Shoulders of Mutton, weighing 350 pounds, lost in roasting, 109 pounds, 10 ounces. The loss of weight in shoulders of Mutton, by roasting, is about 31 pounds and one-third in each hundred.

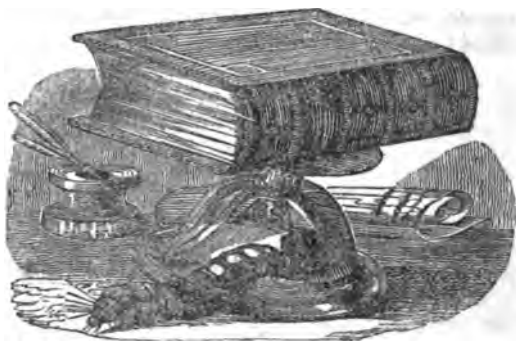
16 Loins of Mutton, weighing 141 pounds, lost in roasting, 49 pounds 14 ounces. Hence loins of Mutton lose, by roasting, about 35 pounds and a half in each hundred.

10 Necks of Mutton, weighing 100 pounds, lost in roasting, 32 pounds 6 ounces.

From the foregoing statement, two practical inferences may be drawn. 1st. In respect of economy, that it is more profitable to boil meat, than to roast it. 2dly, Whether we roast or boil meat, it loses, by being cooked, from one-fifth to one-third of its whole weight.—*Philosophical Magazine*

MUSCULAR STRENGTH OF INSECTS.

The following experiment relative to the muscular strength of a caterpillar, was made by Kirby and Spence: "We put the caterpillar of the goat-moth under a bellglass, which weighed nearly half a pound, and of course more than ten times the weight of the insect; yet it raised it up with the utmost ease. We then placed over the glass the largest book which we had at hand—'Loudon's Encyclopedia of Gardening,' consisting of about 1500 pages of strong paper, and weighing four pounds; but this did not succeed in preventing the escape of the animal, which raised the glass, though loaded with the book, nearly a hundred times its own weight,



and made good its exit. The multiplicity of its muscles, two hundred and thirty-six of which are situated in the legs alone, will enable us to understand how this extraordinary feat was performed. Even this power of muscle, however, would doubtless have been unavailing in raising the loaded glass, except in connexion with two favorable circumstances under which the experiment was performed, and which are necessary to be borne in mind to render the operation perfectly credible:—1st, that the wedge-like form of the caterpillar's head, in connexion with the peculiar shape of the glass, enabled it to lift it;—and 2d, that, one side of the glass resting on the table, the insect only bore half the weight of the glass and book.



THE BANIAN TREE.

The banian-tree (*Ficus Indica*) is one of the many species of the fig-tree, and deserves notice, not only as a fruit-tree, but from its being a sacred tree with the Hindoos in the East Indies, from the vast size that it attains, and from the singularity of its growth. The fruit does not exceed that of a hazel-nut in bigness; but the lateral branches send down shoots that take root, till, in course of time, a single tree extends itself to a considerable grove. This remarkable tree was known to the ancients. Strabo mentions, that after the branches have extended about twelve feet horizontally, they shoot down in the direction of the earth, and there root themselves; and when they have attained maturity, they propagate onward in the same manner, till the whole becomes like a tent supported by many columns. This tree is also noticed by Pliny with a minute accuracy, which has been confirmed by the observations of modern travellers; and Milton has rendered the description of the ancient naturalist almost literally, in the following beautiful passage:

"Branching so broad along, that in the ground
The bending twigs take root; and daughters grow
About the mother tree; a pillared shade,
High over-arched, with echoing walks between.
There oft the Indian herdsman shunning heat,
Shelters in cool; and tends his pasturing herds
At loop-holes cut through thickest shade."

Some specimens of the Indian fig-tree are mentioned as being of immense magnitude. One near Manglee, twenty miles to the westward of Poona, in Bengal, spread over a diameter of 370 feet. The entire circumference of the shadow at noon was 1116 feet, and it required 920 feet to surround the fifty or sixty stems by which the tree was supported. Another covered an area of 1700 square yards; and many of almost equal dimensions are found in different parts of India and Cochin China, where the tree grows in the greatest perfection. A particular account of the banian-tree (sometimes called the pagod-tree) is given in Cordiner's "Ceylon." Mr. Southey has also described it both in the spirit of a poet and a naturalist. The cut given above, which is copied from Mr. Daniell's splendid work on "Oriental Scenery," well illustrates this description:—

"'T was a fair scene wherein they stood,
A green and sunny glade amid the wood
And in the midst an aged Banian grew
It was a goodly sight to see
That venerable tree,

Far o'er the lawn, irregularly spread,
Fifty straight columns propt its lofty head;
And many a long depending shoot,
Seeking to strike its root,
Straight like a plummet, grew towards the ground.
Some on the lower boughs, which crossed their way,
Fixing their bearded fibres, round and round,
With many a ring and wild contortion wound;
Some to the passing wind, at times, with sway
Of gentle motion swung;
Others of younger growth, unmoved, were hang
Like stone-drops from the cavern's fretted height.
Beneath was smooth and fair to sight,
Nor weeds nor briars deformed the natural floor;
And through the leafy cope which bowered it o'er
Came gleams of checkered light.
So like a temple did it seem, that there
A pious heart's first impulse would be prayer."*

* Curse of Kehama.

Wonders of Philosophy.—The polypus receives new life from the knife which is lifted to destroy it. The fly-spider lays an egg as large as itself. There are 4041 muscles in a caterpillar. Hook discovered 14,000 mirrors in the eyes of a drone; and to effect the respiration of a carp, 13,300 arteries, vessels, veins, and bones, &c., are necessary. The body of every spider contains four little masses pierced with a multitude of imperceptible holes, each hole permitting the passage of a single thread; all the threads, to the amount of 1000 to each mass, join together, when they come out, and make the single thread with which the spider spins its web; so that what we call a spider's thread consists of more than 1000 united. Lewenhoeck, by means of microscopes, observed spiders no bigger than a grain of sand, who spun threads so fine that it took 4000 of them to equal in magnitude a single hair.

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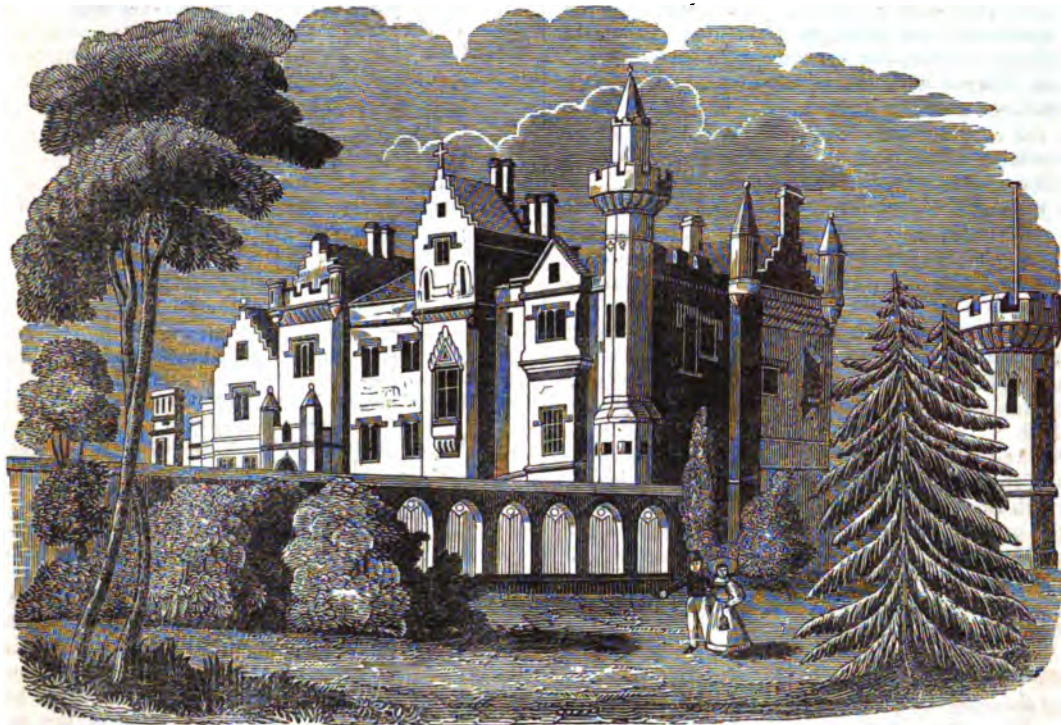
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SATURDAY, OCTOBER 19, 1833.

Vol. I.



ABBOTSFORD.

Abbotsford the seat of the late Sir Walter Scott, is beautifully situated on the south bank of the Tweed, about half a mile from the junction of the Etrick with that river, and a few miles above Melrose Abbey. The surrounding country is celebrated in the annals of romantic lore: in the distance are the Eildon Hills, and the Huntly Burn rushes through a deep ravine in the grounds. The mansion takes its name from a ford formerly used by the monks of Melrose; it is built of a fine gray granite, after designs by Atkinson; the style is not indeed referable to any peculiar age, for in it are concentrated an endless variety of forms and ornaments, borrowed from the most celebrated buildings and ruins of Scotland; thus there is a gateway from Linlithgow, the stone-work and the door of the old Tolbooth of Edinburgh, a chimney-piece from Melrose Abbey, a postern from the Heart of Mid-Lothian, &c. &c. From the exterior, the mansion presents a singularly arranged combination of towers, posterns, zig-zag gables, parapets, and machicolated eaves, with grotesque water-spouts, groups of Elizabethian chimneys, and many other adornments.

From the Gateway, (the fac-simile of that at Linlithgow,) entrance is directly obtained to the Hall, lighted by two lofty gothic windows filled with stained glass and coats of arms. The walls are of richly carved oak, chiefly brought from the old palace of Dumfermline; and the roof is a series of pointed arches of the same material, the ends of the beams of which, with the exception of two or three, present in the centre, according to the fashion

of the middle ages, the arms of the illustrious inhabitants richly blazoned. Around the cornice of the hall runs a continued series of accurately blazoned shields of the heroes of the Border, among which the Scots, the Kerrs, the Douglas', the Herries', and the Rutherfords, are distinguished; two suits of complete steel armor occupy niches: and around are arranged multitudes of swords, spears, helmets, cuirasses, &c., from the enormous two-handed "Schwert," of the Swiss peasant, to the rapier of Dettingen; and from the goodly lance of the steel-clad knight, to that of the Pole who fell at Waterloo. In a room adjoining the hall, are arranged the smaller pieces of offensive and defensive weapons, as spears, darts, arrows, harquebusses, daggers, and pistols, besides various relics of illustrious personages, among which not the least in importance are Rob Roy's gun, the hunting flask of bonnie King James, and Buonaparte's pistols.

The next room of importance is the Library, which is admirably fitted up; the roof and bookcase are of oak, carved to correspond. Two cases opposite the fireplace contain the most valuable of the books and MSS. relative to the rebellions of 1715 and 1745; another case, in the bay window which overlooks the Tweed, those on Magic. The library boasts presentation copies of many distinguished living authors, and a magnificent set of Montfaucon, in ten volumes, folio, a present from George IV. In the same room, on a rich stand of porphyry, is placed a tall silver urn, filled with ashes, and bearing the inscription: "Given by George Gordon, Lord Byron, to Sir Walter Scott,

Bart.; it formerly contained the letter sent with the gift.

Joining the Library is the Study; it is a small room filled with books and objects of antiquity; a writing table in the centre, and a plain armed-chair covered with black leather, form the only furniture of this room, now no longer to be used by its originally illustrious proprietor. The view from the bay window of the principal library, is singularly picturesque; beyond a lawn of green turf rolls the Tweed, fringed with the willow and beach, and in the distance rise the green hills of Ettrick.

In the very accurate and well written Gazetteer of Scotland, edited by Messrs. Robert and William Chambers, it is stated, that the house and its woods have been entirely the creation of the late illustrious proprietor, and that the name is altogether new; as the previous title of the place, when covered by a small and mean farmstead, was Cartley Hole.

It was here that, on the 21st of September, 1832, at half-past one in the afternoon, the poet closed his eyes upon this world. It had been his lasting desire to end his days in his native land, and the wish was fulfilled.

On the 29th of October, a meeting of the creditors of the late Sir Walter was held at Edinburgh, at which the mansion and grounds adjoining were for the present secured to the family; and on the 9th of November, a meeting was held in London, for the purpose of devising means to preserve Abbotsford, as the best monument of the genius of Sir Walter, at which it was agreed:

"That a subscription be forthwith entered into for the purpose of not only preserving Abbotsford, but of securing its proper maintenance in the family of Sir Walter Scott; that books be prepared for the collection of subscriptions, and sent not only throughout the British dominions, but into every part of the world where one of the books can be lodged; that the books be so prepared as to admit the name, description, &c. of the subscriber; that they be all of one uniform size; and that, when the subscription shall be closed, the said books be gathered together, bound up, and deposited among the most honorable of the archives of Abbotsford."

A spirited subscription is now in progress in the neighborhood of Melrose and Abbotsford, for the purpose of erecting a monument to the memory of Sir Walter Scott. It is proposed to build the monument on the top of the Eildon Hills. From the conical peak, 1,330 feet above the level of the sea, one of the most picturesque and commanding in the South of Scotland, it will be seen from thirteen counties. The following cut represents another view of Abbotsford.



The following spirited "Farewell to Abbotsford," by Mrs. Hemans, written before the "home

of the Legend and the Lay," was deprived of its lord and master, possess a melancholy interest at this time.

Home of the gifted! fare-thee-well,
And a blessing on thee rest;
While the heather waves its purple bell
O'er moss and mountain crest;
While stream to stream around thee calls,
And banks with broom are dress,
Glad be the harping in thy halls—
A blessing on thee rest.

While the high voice, from thee sent forth,
Bids rock and cairn reply,
Wakening the spirits of the North,
Like a chieftain's gathering cry;
While its deep master-tones hold away,
As a king's o'er every breast,
Home of the Legend and the Lay!
A blessing on thee rest.

Joy to thy hearth, and board, and bower!
Long honors to thy line!
And hearts of proof, and hands of power,
And bright names worthy thine!
By the merry step of childhood still
May thy free sward be preste!
While one proud pulse in the land can thrill,
A blessing on thee rest.

POPULAR INFORMATION ON SCIENCE.

NO. III. ATTRACTION.

We shall now turn to the other grand division of the subject, namely, the attraction exercised between particles of matter situated at short or insensible distances from each other. Cohesive attraction is that power which retains atoms of the same kind together in masses. When two drops of the same sort of liquid are placed near to each other, as was remarked at the commencement, they attract each other, and uniting together, form one globule. The roundness of the drop is caused by this attraction.

"Hast thou not seen two pearls of dew
The rose's velvet leaf adorn—
How eager their attraction grew,
As nearer to each other borne?"—*Drummond.*

If two globules of quicksilver on a smooth surface be brought near to each other, they will unite in a similar manner. They have also a tendency to remain in this state, and will not separate until some force be applied. Cohesion is strongest in solids. For instance, a bar of iron of half an inch in diameter, or even less, will defy all our efforts to break it with the hand. In fluids, the power is a great deal weaker, as is proved by the ease with which we can separate one portion of water from another. Small needles, however, can be made to float on water, their weight not being sufficient to overcome the cohesion of the fluid. In the same way many small insects walk on the surface of water without being wetted. In gaseous bodies, such as air, this attraction is entirely overcome, and a mutual repulsion exists among the particles, which is the cause of their elasticity. Cohesion is illustrated by the following facts:—When portions of the same size are cut from two leaden bullets, and the fresh surfaces being brought into contact, and slightly pressed, they will unite, and appear as if they had been originally cast in one piece. Fresh cut surfaces of India-rubber cohere in a similar manner. There is a species of attraction called *adhesive* attraction, instances of which come frequently under observation. If water be poured

from a jug which has not a projecting lip, it will not fall perpendicularly, but run down the outside of the vessel. Hence the reason of having a spout to such utensils. A plate of glass, when brought into contact with a level surface of water, adheres to it with considerable tenacity, and resists a separation. Pieces of wood floating in a pond attract each other, and remain in contact; and the wrecks of vessels, when the sea is smooth, are often found gathered together in heaps.

There is a species of attraction called *capillary*, which takes place under the following circumstances:—When one end of an open glass tube is put into water, the enclosed liquid stands above the level of that on the outside, and it rises always the higher the smaller the bore of the tube is; the surrounding glass, being thus nearer to the water, attracts it more powerfully. A piece of lump sugar, whose lowest corner touches the water, soon becomes moistened throughout. Thus also the wick of a lamp or candle draws up the oil or tallow to supply combustion. The sap which rises from the roots to the tops of vegetables, though chiefly an action of vegetable life, partly depends on capillary attraction for its ascent.

We come now to a most important and interesting part of the subject, namely, *chymical attraction* or *affinity*.

There are in nature about fifty-four substances, which are termed elements, from the impossibility of human skill or industry to reduce them to any thing simpler. These elements, uniting together by the power of chymical attraction, form the infinite variety of objects around us. The investigation of this subject, from its great extent and vast importance, would require a separate article of itself to do it any thing like justice; but we hope to be able to give a general idea of it, sufficiently *attractive* to induce the reader to pursue the subject in more laborious compilations.

Chymical attraction is exercised between particles of dissimilar bodies, which, uniting, form a new substance possessing properties different from those of its ingredients. Frequently, indeed, the qualities of the compound are exactly the opposite of those of its constituents, as in the case of water. This liquid is composed of hydrogen, one of the most inflammable bodies known, and oxygen, the grand supporter of combustion on the globe. Yet when these are united, they form a fluid possessing qualities so totally different from their own, that it destroys all flame whatsoever, unless, indeed, the heat be so intense as to decompose the water; and frequently the same component parts, when united in different proportions, produce the most opposite substances. Thus the common air which we breathe is composed of the very same elements as aqua-fortis. All bodies have not a chymical attraction for each other. Thus oil and water, though shaken together, will never be made to unite; but if lime water is employed, a union takes place, and the result is a new compound, which is insoluble in water. Again, sulphuric acid, or vitriol, will not dissolve or unite with gold; but it will with copper or iron, (besides a great variety of other bodies,) forming in the first instance sulphate of copper or blue vitriol; and in the second, sulphate of iron or copperas. Common sea sand and soda, when heated together, attract each other, and, combining, form glass. What are called acids and alkalis have a strong affinity for each other, and their compounds form a class of substances called salts,

which are most important in the arts and manufactures. Oil of vitriol and soda, for instance, combine with great facility, and the compound is Glauber salt.

Thus, by the existence and exercise of this peculiar property of matter, are formed the endless diversity of substances which constitute the mass of our globe. It is impossible to contemplate the subject of attraction in general, without a feeling of religious reverence and awe for the Divine Being who drew the mighty plan, set it in motion at first, and sustains it so still. But the wisdom of it is not more conspicuous than the benevolence. Indeed, the operations of all the various laws of nature are to man so many various sources of enjoyment. He stands as it were the centre of the system of life and nature around him. What attraction is in the abstract, human sagacity has not yet, and probably never will, unravel.

The chain of cause and effect here breaks off, or rather for the present may be said to terminate in the Deity. Future philosophers, however, may discover a proximate cause, and even trace the golden links through a thousand beautiful windings, but in a Divine Creator they must merge at last.

AIR AND EXERCISE.

There is a fact well known to physicians, which settles at once the importance of fresh air to beauty, as well as health. It is, that in proportion as people stay at home, and do not set their lungs playing as they ought, the blood becomes dark, and lags in its current; whereas the habit of inhaling the air out of doors reddens it like a ruby, and makes it clear and brisk. Now the darker the blood, the more melancholy the sensations, and the worse the complexion.

It is common with persons who inherit a good stock of health from their ancestors, to argue that they take no particular pains to preserve it, and yet are well. This may be true; and it is also true, that there is a pains-taking to that effect, which is superfluous and morbid, and helps to do more harm than good. But it does not follow from either of these truths, that a neglect of the rational means of retaining health will ultimately be good for any body. Healthy people may live a good while upon their stock. Children are in the habit of doing it. But healthy children, especially those who are foolishly treated upon an assumption that health consists in being highly fed, and having great beef-eaten cheeks, very often turn out sickly at last; and grown-up people, for the most part, at least in great towns, have as little really good health, as children in general are given credit for the reverse. Nature does indeed provide liberally for abuses; but the abuse will be felt at last. It is generally felt a long while before it is acknowledged. Then comes age, with all its train of regrets and superstitions; and the beauty and the man, besides a world perhaps of idle remorse, which they would not feel but for their perverted blood, could eat their hearts out for having been such fools as not to secure a continuance of good looks and manly feelings, for want of a little handsome energy.

The ill taste of existence that is so apt to come upon people in middle life, is too often attributed to moral causes. Moral they are, but very often not in the sense imagined. Whatever causes be mixed up with them, the greatest of all is, in ninety

nine instances out of a hundred, no better or grander than a non-performance of the common duties of health. Many a fine lady takes a surfeit for a tender distress; and many a real sufferer who is haunted by a regret, or takes himself for the most ill-used of bilious old gentlemen, might trace the loftiest of his woes to no better origin than a series of ham-pies, or a want of proper use of his boots and umbrella.



THE TRUMPETER BIRD.

This bird is a native of South America. Its length is about twenty-two inches, and its legs are five inches high, and completely covered with small scales, which reach two inches above the knee. Its general plumage is black, and the feathers of the head and neck are very short and downy; those of the fore part of the neck, and upper part of the breast, of a very glossy gilded green, with a reflection of blue in some lights. The feathers between the shoulders are rust-colored, changing into a pale ash color as they pass downwards. They are loose and silky. Those of the shoulders are long, and hang over the tail, which is very short, and consists of twelve blackish feathers. The legs are greenish, and the bill is yellowish green, having the nostrils open.

The most characteristic and remarkable property of these birds consists in the wonderful noise which they often make, either of their own accord, or when urged by their keepers. To induce them to this, it is sometimes necessary to entice the bird with a bit of bread to come near, and then making the same kind of sound, which the keepers can well imitate, the bird will frequently be disposed to repeat it. This strange noise, which somewhat resembles the moan of pigeons, is at times preceded by a savage cry, interrupted by a sound approaching that of *sherch, sherch*. In this way the bird utters five, six, or seven times, very quickly, a hollow noise from within its body, nearly as if one pronounced *tou, tou, tou, tou, tou, tou*, with the mouth shut, resting upon the last *tou* a very long time, and terminating by sinking gradually with the same note.

When tamed, the Trumpeter distinguishes its master and benefactor with marks of affection. "Having," (says Vosmaër) "reared one myself,

I had an opportunity of experiencing this. When I opened its cage in the morning, the kind animal hopped round me, expanding its wings, and trumpeting, as if to wish me good morning. He showed equal attention when I went out and returned. No sooner did he perceive me at a distance, than he ran to meet me; and even when I happened to be in a boat, and set my foot on shore, he welcomed me with the same compliments, which he reserved for me alone, and never bestowed upon others."

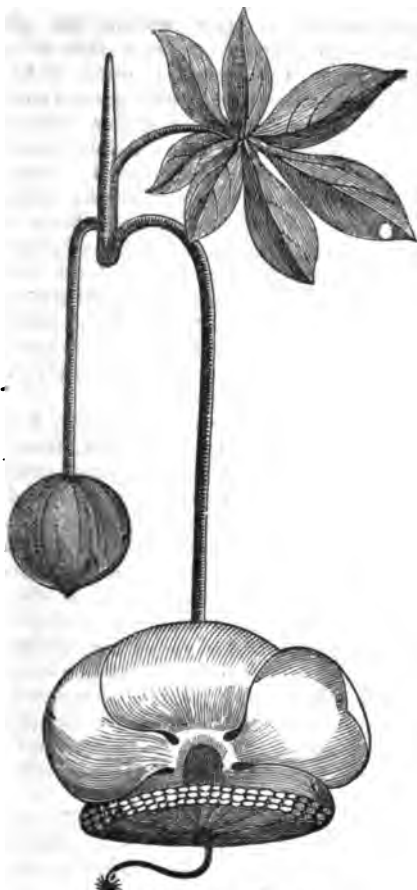
The Trumpeter is easily tamed, and always becomes attached to its benefactor. When bred up in the house, it loads its master with caresses, and follows his motions; and if it conceives a dislike to persons on account of their forbidding figure, or of some injury received, it will pursue them sometimes to a considerable distance, biting their legs, and showing every mark of displeasure. It obeys the voice of its master, and even answers the call of others to whom it bears no ill-will. It is fond of caresses, and offers its head and neck to be stroked; and if once accustomed to these familiarities, it becomes troublesome, and will not be satisfied without continual fondling. It makes its appearance as often as its master sits down to table, and begins with driving out the dogs and cats from the room; for it is so obstinate and bold, that it never yields, but oftentimes after a tough battle, will put a middle-sized dog to flight. It avoids the bites of its antagonist by rising in the air; and retaliates with violent blows of its bill and claws, aimed chiefly at the eyes. After it gains the superiority, it pursues the victory with the utmost rancor, and if not taken off will destroy its antagonist. By its intercourse with man, its instincts become moulded like those of a dog; and we are assured it can be trained to attend a flock of sheep. It even shows a degree of jealousy of its human rivals; for when at table, it bites fiercely the naked legs of the negroes and other domestics who approach its master.

Almost all these birds have also a habit of following people through the streets, and out of town, even those whom they have never seen before. It is difficult to get rid of them. If a person enters a house, they will wait his return, and again join him, though after an interval of three hours. "I have sometimes," (says M. de la Borde) "betaken myself to my heels; but they ran faster, and always got before me; and when I stopped, they stopped also. I know one that invariably follows all the strangers who enter its master's house, accompanies them into the garden, takes as many turns there as they do, and attends them back again."

In a state of nature the Trumpeter inhabits the barren mountains and upland forests of South America, never visiting the cleared grounds nor the settlements. It associates in numerous flocks. It walks and runs, rather than flies, since it never rises more than a few feet from the ground, and then only to reach some short distance, or to gain some low branch. It feeds on wild fruits; and when surprised in its haunts, makes its escape by the swiftness of its feet, at the same time uttering a shrill cry, not unlike that of a turkey.

The various combinations into which the twenty-four letters of the alphabet may be arranged, amount to 620,448,401,733,239,439,360,000.

The number of miles run by Stage Coaches in England is annually about 40,530,000. The expense of drawing coaches by horses is about two shillings per mile, so that the annual expenditure for horse-keeping is about 4,000,000*l*.



Fruit and Blossom of the Baobab.

THE BAOBAB TREE.

This superb tree is a native of the burning climate of Africa. It is supposed, by the inhabitants of a shore which abounds in gigantic shrubs, to be the largest and most majestic production of the vegetable kingdom; and, from its enormous size and noble appearance, it well merits the title of Monarch of the Forest. Its trunk, which is scarcely ever known to exceed fifteen feet in height, often measures no less than eighty in circumference. The lower branches, which are adorned with tufts of leaves, extends from its sides horizontally, and bending by their great weight towards the earth, form a mass of verdure no less astonishing in size than beautiful in appearance. The circumference of a full-grown tree, measuring the circle which surrounds the branches, is said in some cases to be as much as four hundred and fifty feet; when of this size, its bulk is so enormous that, at a distance, it bears a greater resemblance to an overgrown forest than to a single tree. It is beneath the grateful shade of its spreading boughs that the wearied Negroes lie down, when scorched by the burning sun of their sultry climate; and it is the friendly shelter of its overhanging branches that the benighted traveller seeks, when overtaken or threatened with a storm. The countries of Africa which are particularly favorable to the production of this tree, and in which it chiefly flourishes, are those which lie along the coast and shores of the Niger, as far down as the kingdom of Benin.

The blossoms are as gigantic in proportion as the tree which bears them: they begin usually to appear about the month of July. The fruit ripens towards the latter end of the month of October, or in the early part of November. It differs greatly

in its shape; sometimes it is found of an oblong form, pointed at both ends; at other times, it is said to be perfectly globular; and it often bears a shape in medium between these two. In its size it differs as considerably as in its shape. It is covered with a green rind or shell, which, however, as it dries, becomes of a dark fawn color, and often assumes a deep brown. It is very prettily marked and ornamented with rays, and is suspended from the tree by a pedicle or stalk, the length of which is nearly two feet. The fruit, when broken, exhibits to the eye a spongy substance of a pale chocolate color, containing much juice. Its seeds are brown, and in shape resemble a kidney-bean. The bark of the tree is nearly an inch in thickness, of an ash-colored gray, greasy to the touch, and very smooth; the exterior is adorned with a description of varnish; while the inside is of a brilliant green, beautifully speckled with bright red. The wood itself is white, and very soft and penetrable, and is said to possess many very peculiar virtues, which are held in much esteem by the Negroes.

The age of this tree is not the least extraordinary part of its history. From names and dates which appear to have been carved upon some of them by Europeans, we are led to conclude that they were in existence five or six centuries ago. The leaves, when the tree is in its earliest infancy, are of an oblong shape, about four or five inches in length, having several veins running from the middle rib, of a beautiful and bright green; as the plant advances in growth, and increases in height and size, the shape of the leaves alter, and they become divided into three parts; afterwards, when the tree has attained its complete growth, and become a full-sized and vigorous vegetable, these three divisions increase to five, and the leaf assumes a shape not unlike that of the human hand.

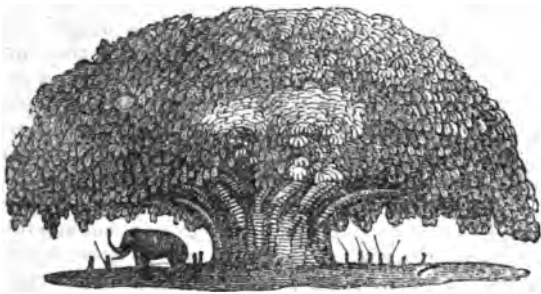
The Negroes of Senegal dry the bark and the leaves in the shade, and then reduce them to a fine powder. This powder, which is of a green color, they preserve in little linen or cotton bags, and term it *lillo*. They use it at their meals and in their cookery,—putting a pinch or two into their food, in the same manner as we do pepper and salt, not so much with an idea of giving a relish to the dish, as with a view to preserve their health, and to keep up a perpetual and plentiful perspiration, and to temper the too great heat of their blood; purposes which, if we may credit the reports of several Europeans, it is admirably calculated for. There is an epidemic fever, which rages in parts of Africa generally during the months of September and October, when the rains having on a sudden ceased, the sun exhales the water left by them upon the ground, and fills the air with noxious vapors. During this critical season, a light decoction prepared from the leaves of the Baobab tree, gathered the preceding year and carefully dried in the shade, is reckoned a most serviceable remedy.

Nor is the fruit less valuable than the leaves or bark. The pulp, in which the seeds are enveloped, forms a very grateful, cooling, and slightly acid food, and is often eaten as a treat by the natives: the richer sort amongst them mix sugar with it to correct its acidity. The woody bark of the fruit, and the fruit itself when spoiled, help to supply the Negroes with an excellent soap, which they procure by drawing a lye from its ashes, and by boiling it with rancid palm-oil.

In Abyssinia, the wild bees penetrate the trunks of the Baobab for the sake of lodging their honey

within them. This honey is said to possess a very peculiar and delicious fragrance and a very agreeable flavor, on which account it is more esteemed and sought after than any other.

The trunks on such of these trees as are decayed serve, when hollowed out, as tombs and burial-places for the poets, musicians, and buffoons of the tribe. Characters of this description are in great esteem amongst the Negroes while living: they erroneously ascribe to them talents superior to the rest of their fellow creatures; which peculiar gifts they are supposed to derive from a commerce with demons, sorcerers, and bad spirits. This causes them, during their life-time, to be much respected and courted by their various and respective tribes; but their bodies, after death, are far from being treated with this respect; on the contrary, they are regarded with so great a horror, that they deny them the rights of burial—neither suffering them to be put beneath the ground, nor to be thrown into the sea or rivers, from a superstitious dread that the water thus dishonored would refuse to nourish the fish, and that the earth would fail to produce its fruits. The bodies, then, in order to get rid of them in some manner without degrading either the sea or land, they enclose in the hollow trunks of the trees, where, in the course of ages, they become quite dry and sapless, without actually rotting, and form in that manner a description of mummy without the help of embalming.



PLANTING.

The shop keeper turns his capital once in a week, or a month. The farmer turns his money once in a year; but the forest planter must discard the commercial maxim, "a small profit and a quick return," for he can scarcely turn his capital once in his life time. Still, however, nothing can pay better than the planting of waste lands with forest trees. Oaks, pines, ash, sycamore, elms and poplars, will give more profit than ferns, heaths, and rushes; and a practical man, with four laborers under him, could superintend five hundred acres. A man cannot amass a large property for his children by a small outlay, so surely as by planting.

Plantations are experimentally found, by the annual casting of their leaves, to lend material aid to the encouragement of the fine and more nourishing grasses; while, at the same time, they cause the destruction of the heath and other coarser productions of vegetation. By the influence of this annual top-dressing, hundreds, nay thousands of acres, have been rendered worth from five to ten shillings an acre instead of from sixpence to, at the utmost, two shillings. Whoever knows any thing of the comparative value of heath and green-sward pasture, will allow that the advantages of converting the one into the other are very moderately stated at the above rates; and this wonder-

ful transformation is made without the slightest assistance from human art, save that of putting suitable plants. The annual pruning of trees by the knife, makes them grow with great vigor. By experiment it appeared that plants which were pruned, advanced at the rate of four years in six before those which were not pruned. This treatment should be attended to every year, either winter or summer, or after they have been planted out. Lawn trees, groups, or outlines of plantations, should seldom be touched, or, at least, without a knowledge of picturesque effect. Were the proprietors of plantations sensible of the injury they do their posterity, they would no longer ignorantly, and, it may be said of many, obstinately, neglect this necessary improvement.

In the common course of gardening, it is found that pruning invigorates the tree, and that training-off judiciously the large side branches, makes the upright ones shoot the stronger. This doctrine will apply to all trees, particularly to the whole tribe of firs; it will undoubtedly substitute clear wood for knots; and, of all this management, from their particular uses, the latter, of all other trees, stand in most need, and will be most improved by it. This operation will advance the quality nearer to that of foreign timber; for it may be traced, that where trees are tall and clear of boughs or knots, (by cutting the branches close to the stem) the whole substance of the wood is better, and of finer grain; and it appears likely that such will always be the case.

The practice of cutting off large limbs to improve the timber should decidedly be condemned; we may daily see the deplorable effects of it. By judicious pruning and thinning every year, it will be found that poor land is converted by these means to a good purpose, and at a trifling expense.

RAILWAYS.

Before the establishment of the Liverpool and Manchester railway, there were twenty-two regular, and about seven occasional extra coaches, between those places, which, in full, could only carry, per day, 688 persons. The railway, from its commencement, carried 700,000 persons in eighteen months, being an average of 1070 per day. It has not been stopped for a single day. There has occurred but one fatal accident on it in eighteen months. The fare by coach was 10s. inside, and 5s. outside; by railway it is 5s. inside, and 3s. 6d. outside. The time occupied in making the journey by coach was four hours; by railway it is one hour and three quarters. All the coaches but one have ceased running, and that chiefly for the conveyance of parcels. The mails all travel by the railway, at a saving to government of two-thirds of the expense. The railway coaches are more commodious than others; the travelling is cheaper, safer, and easier. A great deal of traffic which used to go by other roads comes now by railway: both time and money are saved, though the length of the journey may be often increased. The proportion of passengers carried by railway over those carried by coach has been 22 to 10 in winter, and 17 or 18 to 10 in summer. A regiment of soldiers has been carried by the railway from Manchester to Liverpool in two hours. Gentlemen's carriages are conveyed on tracks by the railway. The locomotive travels in safety after dark. The rate of carriage of goods is 10s. per ton; by canal it used to be 15s. per ton.

The time occupied in the journey by railway is two hours; by canal it is twenty hours. The canals have reduced their rates thirty per cent. Goods are delivered in Manchester the same day they are received in Liverpool; by canal they were never delivered before the third day. By railway, goods, such as wines and spirits, are not subject to the pilferage which existed on the canals. The saving to manufacturers in the neighborhood of Manchester in the carriage of cotton alone has been £20,000 per annum; some houses of business save £500 a year in carriage. Persons now go from Manchester to Liverpool and back in the same day with the greatest ease; formerly they were generally obliged to be absent the greater part of two days. More persons now travel on their own business. The railway is assessed to the parochial rates in all the parishes through which it passes: through only 31 miles, it pays between £3000 and £4000 per annum in parochial rates. Coal-pits have been sunk and manufactories established in the line, giving great employment to the poor; manufactories are also erected on the line, giving increased employment, and thus reducing the number of claimants for parochial relief. The railway pays one-fifth of the poor-rates in the parishes through which it passes. Fresh coal-mines have been sunk, owing to facilities of carriage and reduced price. It is found advantageous for the carriage of milk and garden produce: arrangements are about to be made for milk to be carried 15 miles at 1s. per 10 gallons (i. e., less than one farthing per quart.) A great deal of land on the line has been let for garden ground at increased rents. Residents on the line find the railway a great convenience, by enabling them to attend to their business in Manchester and Liverpool with ease, at little expense. No inconvenience is felt by residents from smoke or noise, but, on the contrary, great advantages are experienced by means of travelling, to and fro, distances of ten miles in half an hour for 1s., and without any fatigue. The engines only burn coke. The value of land on the line has been considerably enhanced by the operation of the railway: land cannot be purchased but at a large increase in price; it is much sought after for building, &c. The Railway Company, in their late purchases, have been obliged to pay frequently double the price they originally paid for their land. A great deal of land has been sold for building at three times its former value. Much waste land on the line has been taken into cultivation, and yields a good rent. Land-owners, originally opposed to the railway, are now its warm advocates: having found their fears wholly groundless, they have now been solicitous that the line should pass through their land. Mr. Babbage observes, in his book on the "Economy of Manufactures," "One point of view in which rapid modes of conveyance increase the power of a country deserves attention. On the Manchester railroad, for example, above half a million of persons travel annually; and supposing each person to save only one hour in the time of transit between Manchester and Liverpool, a saving of five hundred thousand hours, or of fifty thousand working days of ten hours each, is effected. Now, this is equivalent to an addition to the actual power of the country of one hundred and sixty-seven men, without increasing the quantity of food consumed; and it should be also remarked, that the time of the class of men thus supplied is far more valuable than that of mere laborers."

The great utility of railways, and their productiveness in a pecuniary point of view, have just been exemplified at Edinburgh, where a railroad, formed for the purpose of introducing coal to the city from pits a few miles distant, has been covered with vehicles for the conveyance of passengers to all parts of the adjacent country.



MONKEY'S BREAD.

This tree is a native of the western coast of Africa, and also of Egypt. In the former country it is described by Adanson as being a tree of large dimensions and singular economy. The trunks were about twelve or fourteen feet high, but of the vast circumference of sixty or seventy feet. The lateral branches were forty or fifty feet long, of the thickness of a great tree, and with their remote branches touching the ground; while some of the roots that had been laid bare were upwards of a hundred feet long, and even then were not exposed for their whole length. The fruit is from nine to twelve inches long, and about four in diameter, of a brownish color, and rather pointed toward the extremities. The pulp is a little farinaceous, mixed with fibres: when recent, it has a very refreshing, acid taste; and eaten with sugar, it is both pleasant and wholesome. It retains its cooling qualities when dry; and, on that account, the physicians of Cairo administer it in fevers and other diseases.

ON THE UTILITY OF THE REMARKS AND OBSERVATIONS OF MECHANICS AND MANUFACTURERS.

That the remarks of experienced artists and laborers may frequently lead to useful discoveries may be illustrated by the following facts:—"A soap manufacturer remarked that the residuum of his lye, when exhausted of the alkali for which he employed it, produced a corrosion of his copper boiler for which he could not account. He put it into the hands of a scientific chymist for analysis, and the result was the discovery of one of the most singular and important chymical elements, *iodine*. The properties of this, being studied, were found to occur most appositely in illustration and support of a variety of new, curious, and instructive views then gaining ground in chymistry, and thus exercised a marked influence over the whole body of that science. Curiosity was excited; the origin of the new substance was traced to the sea-plants, from whose ashes the principal ingredient of soap is obtained, and ultimately to the sea-water itself. It was thence hunted through nature, discovered in salt-mines and springs, and pursued into all bodies which have a marine origin; among the rest, into sponge. A medical practitioner then called to

mind a reputed remedy for the cure of one of the most grievous and unsightly disorders to which the human species is subject—the *goitre*—which infests the inhabitants of mountainous districts to an extent which, in this favored land, we have happily no experience of, and which was said to have been originally cured by the ashes of burnt sponge. Led by this indication, he tried the effect of iodine on that complaint, and the result established the extraordinary fact that this singular substance, taken as a medicine, acts with the utmost promptitude and energy on *goitre*, dissipating the largest and most inveterate in a short time, and acting (of course with occasional failures, like all other medicines) as a specific or natural antagonist against that odious deformity. It is thus that any accession to our knowledge of nature is sure, sooner or later, to make itself felt in some practical application, and that a benefit conferred on science, by the casual observation or shrewd remark of even an unscientific or illiterate person, infallibly repays itself with interest, though often in a way that could never have been at first contemplated."

Iodine was *accidentally* discovered (as above stated) in 1812, by M. de Courtois, a manufacturer of saltpetre at Paris, and derived its first illustrations from M. Clement and M. Desormes. Its name literally signifies a *violet color*. Its specific gravity is about 4. It becomes a violet colored gas at a temperature below that of boiling water; it combines with the metals, with phosphorus and sulphur, with the alkalis and metallic oxides, and forms a detonating compound with ammonia. Dr. Coindet of Geneva first recommended the use of it, in the form of tincture, for the cure of *goitres*. Some readers may perhaps require to be informed that the *goitre* is a large fleshy excrescence that grows from the throat, and sometimes increases to an enormous size. The inhabitants of certain parts of Switzerland, especially those in the republic of Valais, are particularly subject to this shocking deformity.

THE BUGLE.

BY GRENVILLE MELLEN.

O, wild, enchanting horn!
Whose music, up the deep and dewy air,
Swells to the clouds, and calls on Echo there,
"Till a new melody is born!

Wake, wake again; the night
Is beaming from her throne of Beauty down,
With still stars beaming on her azure crown,
Intense, and eloquently bright!

Night, at its pulseless noon!
When the far voice of waters mourns in song,
And some tired watch-dog, lazily and long,
Barks at the melancholy moon!

Hark! how it sweeps away,
Soaring and dying on the silent sky,
As if some sprite of sound went wandering by,
With lone halloo and roundelay.

Swell, swell in glory out!
Thy tones come pouring on my leaping heart,
And my stirred spirit hears thee with a start,
As boyhood's old remembered shout!

O, have ye heard that peal,
From sleeping city's moon-bathed battlements,
Or from the guarded field and warrior tents,
Like some near breath around ye steal!

Or have ye, in the roar
Of sea, or storm, or battle, heard it rise,

Shriller than eagle's clamor to the skies,
Where wings and tempests never soar
Go, go; no other sound,
No music, that of air or earth is born,
Can match the mighty music of that horn,
On Midnight's fathomless profound!

SINGULAR PROPERTIES OF THE FIGURE 9

Multiply 9 by itself, or by any other of the digits, and the figures of the product added together will amount to 9. The component figures of the amount of the multipliers, (viz. 45) when added together, make 9.

The amount of the several products or multiples of 9, (viz. 405) when divided by 9, gives a quotient of 45; and the component figures of either the dividend or quotient added together make 9.

Multiply any row of figures either by nine, or by any one of the products of nine multiplied by one of the digits, as by 18, 27, 36, 45, 54, 63, 72, or 81, and the sum of the figures of the product added together will be divisible by 9.

Multiply the 9 digits in the following order, 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9, by nine, or by any one of the products of nine mentioned in the last paragraph, and the product will come out all in one figure, except the place of tens, which will be an 0, and that figure will be the one which multiplied into 9, supplies the multiplier; that is, if you select 9 as the multiplier, the product will be (except the place of tens) all ones; if you select 18, all twos; if 27, all threes, and so on. Omit the 8 in the multiplicand, and the 0 will also vanish from the product, leaving it all ones, twos, threes, &c. as the case may be.

Practical Christianity.—During the siege of Barcelona by the Spaniards and English, in the war of the succession, in 1705, an affecting incident occurred, which is thus related by Captain Carleton in his memoirs. "I remember I saw an old officer, having his only son with him; (a fine man about twenty years of age) going into the tent to dine. While they were at dinner, a shot from the Bastion of St. Antonio took off the head of the son. The father immediately rose up, first looking down upon his headless child, and then lifting up his eyes to heaven, whilst the tears ran down his cheeks, only said, *Thy will be done*. It was a sad spectacle, and truly it affects me even now while I am writing."

Use of Tobacco.—It is stated in the French papers that by mixing tobacco juice with the pitch and tar used in paying the seams in a ship's bottom, the attack of worms and destructive insects will be prevented, and coppering rendered unnecessary.

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Vol. I.



THE TALIPOT TREE OF CEYLON.

There are few objects in the vegetable kingdom more remarkable and beautiful, or more useful to man, than the Talipot tree, which is a species of palm (the *corypha umbraculifera* of Linnæus) peculiar to the island of Ceylon, and the Malabar coast, and is said to be found also in the Marquesas and Friendly Islands. Robert Knox says that it is as big and as tall as a ship's mast, but Cordiner gives more definite dimensions by stating that one which he measured was a hundred feet high and five feet in circumference near the ground. The stem of this tree is perfectly straight; it gradually diminishes as it ascends, the circumference of the upper part being about half that of the base: it is strong enough to resist the most violent tropical winds. It has no branches, and the leaves only spring from its summit. These leaves, which when on the tree are almost circular, are of such prodigious diameter that they can shelter ten or a dozen (Knox says from fifteen to twenty) men, standing near to each other. The flower of the tree which shoots above the leaves is at first a cluster of bright yellow blossoms, exceedingly beautiful to the eye, but emitting an odor too strong and pungent to be agreeable. Before its development the flower is enclosed in a hard rind, which rind, upon the expansion of the flower, bursts with a sharp noise. The flower shoots pyramidically to a

great height, frequently adding as much as thirty feet to the elevation of the tree. From the flower proceed the fruit or seeds, which are as large as our cherries, and exceedingly numerous, but not eatable: they are only useful as seeds to reproduce and multiply the tree. It appears that the natives do not sow them, but leave that operation entirely to nature. The flower and the fruit only appear once on one tree. Their appearance betoken that the tree has attained to old age, which, according to the natives, it does in a hundred years: Ribeyro, a Portuguese writer, says, in about thirty years, which is more likely to be correct.

As soon as the fruit or seeds are ripe, the tree dries up and decays so rapidly that in two or three weeks it is seen prostrate and rotting on the ground. Knox asserts, that if the tree be cut down before it runs to seed, the pith, largely contained within the stem, is nutritious and wholesome, and adds, that the natives take this pith, "and beat it in mortars to flour, and bake cakes of it, which taste much like to wheat bread, and it serves them instead of corn before their harvest be ripe." We have not found these cakes mentioned by any other writer on Ceylon; but as Knox was so veracious and correct, we may admit that the natives were accustomed to make them. A better known fact about the uses of the inner parts of the tree, is, that

sago is made from them. The stem or trunk of the talipot, like that of most other palms, is extremely hard without, but soft and spongy within, the greater part of its diameter being a soft brownish cellular substance. The sago is made by beating the spongy part of the stem in a mortar, by which means the fecula is procured. Still, however, the great usefulness of the tree is in its leaves. Growing on the tree, these leaves when expanded, are of a beautiful dark green color; but those chiefly used are cut before they spread out, and have, and retain for ages, a pale brownish yellow color, not unlike old parchment. Their preparation for use is very simple: they are rubbed with hard, smooth pieces of wood, which express any humidity that may remain, and increase their pliability, which is naturally very great. The structure of this wonderful leaf and the disposition of its fibres will be best understood by a glance at the engraving at the head of this article, in which the construction of the leaves is shown, particularly by those in the right-hand corner.

Our readers will there see that it is made precisely like a fan, and like a fan it can be closed or expanded, and with almost as little exertion. It is in fact used as a fan by the natives of Ceylon, and is at the same time their only-umbrella and parasol; in addition to which uses it forms their only tent when they are in the field, and, cut up into strips, it serves them to write upon instead of paper.

The leaf is so light that an entire one can be carried in the hand; but as this, from its great size when expanded, would be inconvenient, the natives cut segments from it, which they use to defend themselves from the scorching rays of the sun, or from the rains. The narrow part is carried foremost, the better to enable those who use them to penetrate through the woods and thickets, with which most of the country abounds. No handles are used, but the two sides of the leaf are grasped by the bearer. "This," says Knox, in his quaint manner, "is a marvellous mercy which Almighty God hath bestowed upon this poor and naked people in this *rainy country*!" He ought to have added, in this *hot country*, for the heats in Ceylon, whose mean temperature is 81°, are frequently, and for long periods, tremendous, and the talipot leaf is quite as valuable as a protection against them as against rain.

However much water may fall on the leaf it imbibes no humidity, remaining dry and light as ever. The British troops in their campaign in the jungles against the Cingalese in 1817 and 1818, found to their cost how excellent a preservative it was against wet and damp. The enemy's musketeers were furnished, each with a talipot leaf, by means of which they always kept their arms and powder perfectly dry and could fire upon the invading forces; while frequently the British muskets, which had no such protection, were rendered useless by the heavy rains, and the moisture of the woods and thickets, and the soldiers were consequently unable to return the fire of the natives.

As tents, the talipot leaves are set up an end. Two or three talipot umbrellas thus employed make an excellent shelter, and from being so light and portable, each leaf folding up to the size of a man's arm, they are admirably adapted for this important service. The chiefs, moreover, have regularly formed square tents made of them. In these the leaves are neatly sewed together and laid over a

light frame work: the whole is light and can be packed up in a very small compass.

When used in lieu of paper, they are cut into strips (those which we have seen are about fifteen inches long by three broad,) soaked for a short time in boiling water, rubbed backward and forward over a smooth piece of wood to make them pliable, and then carefully dried. The Cingalese write or engrave their letters upon them with a stylus, or pointed steel instrument, and then rub them over with a dark colored substance, which only remaining in the parts etched or scratched, gives the characters greater relief, and makes them more easy to read. The coloring matter is rendered liquid by being mixed with cocoa-nut oil, and when dry is not easily effaced. On common occasions they write on the leaf of another species of palm-tree, but the talipot is used in all government despatches, important documents, such as title-deeds to estates, &c., and in their books. A Cingalese book is a bundle of these strips tied up together. As even the lawyers and the learned in this country are very deficient in chronological knowledge, great confusion occurs as to dates; and it is very common to see a Cingalese judge attempting to ascertain the antiquity of a document produced in court by smelling and cutting it.

The oil employed in the writing imparts a strong odor which preserves it from insects, but this odor is changed by age. The talipot, however, appears to have in itself a natural quality which deters the attack of insects and preserves it from the decay of age even without the oil. It may be worth while observing that the Cingalese who engrave the most solemn of their deeds, such as the foundation of, or donations to a temple, on plates of fine copper, which are generally neatly edged with silver, always make these plates of precisely the same shape as the talipot strips used for writing.

Besides all the uses described, the Cingalese employ the talipot leaf extensively in thatching their houses. They also manufacture hats from it; these hats are made with brims as broad as an outstretched umbrella, and are chiefly worn by women nursing, to defend them and their infants from the heat.

The talipot is not a very common tree at present, and is rarely seen growing by those who only visit the coasts of the island and do not penetrate into the interior. It seems to grow, scattered among other trees, in the forests. In a view of the town of Kandy, as it was in 1821, a fine specimen of the talipot, in flower, is seen close to a group of cocoa-nut trees.

NATURE.

In a state of nature no race of animals is unhappy; they are all adapted to the mode of life which God has ordained them to lead; and their chief enjoyment consists in pursuing their natural habits, whatever these may be. The woodpecker, while boring a tree, and clinging to it for hours by its scendant feet, is just as happy as the eagle is when perched upon the mountain cliff, or pouncing on its quarry from the clouds. Neither could lead the life of the other, but each is happy in the state which has been assigned to it; and this is observable throughout all nature. A rat, which burrows in a ditch, is as happy as it could desire, so long as it can find garbage sufficient to feed on; and a

heron, immovably fixed watching for the approach of small fishes and frogs, has, there can be little doubt, as much pleasure as any lover of the angle can enjoy while wearing out the summer day in marking his light float, and waiting, in mute expectation, the wished-for bite. We generally, I believe, connect rapidity or slowness of motion with the ideas we form of an animal's happiness. If, like the tortoise, it move with slow and measured steps, we pity or despise, as the mood may be, its melancholy, sluggish condition; and the poor persecuted toad has, probably, incurred as much of the odium so unjustly attached to it, by its inactivity, as by the supposed loathsomeness of its appearance. On the other hand, enjoyment seems always to be the concomitant of celerity of motion. A fly, dancing in the air, seems more happy than the spider lurking in his den; and the lark, singing at "heaven's gate," to possess a more joyous existence than the snail, which creeps almost imperceptibly upon a leaf, or the mole, which passes the hours of brightness and sunshine in his dark caverns under ground. But these and all other animals are happy, each in its own way; and the habits of one, constituted as the creatures are, could form no source of felicity to another, but the very reverse. Though activity may stimulate the appearance of superior enjoyment, we may conceive, that where it is excessive, the animal in which it is so demonstrated must suffer much from fatigue. This would be another mistake, in so far as relates to animals in a state of nature. The works of God are all perfect in their kind; but if an animal were formed to lead a life of almost perpetual motion, and that motion were accompanied or followed by fatigue, the work would be imperfect: take the swallow as an example; it is constantly on the wing except at night. From the early morning to the downgoing of the sun, it is forever dashing through the air with the rapidity of an arrow, but neither morning nor evening does it ever show one symptom of weariness; it has a wing which never tires; and at night it betakes itself to repose, not worn out by the fatigues of the day, but prepared for sleep after what is to it a wholesome exercise.

STANZAS.

BY JOSIAH CONDER.

Why are springs enthroned so high,
Where the mountains kiss the sky?
'Tis that thence their streams may flow,
Fertilizing all below.

Why have clouds such lofty flight,
Basking in the golden light?
'T is to send down genial showers
On this lower world of ours.

Why does God exalt the great?
'T is that they may prop the state;
So that Toil its sweets may yield,
And the sower reap the field.

Riches, why doth He confer?—
That the rich may minister,
In the hour of their distress,
To the poor and fatherless.

Does He light a Newton's mind?
'T is to shine on all mankind.
Does He give to Virtue birth?—
'T is the salt of this poor earth.

Reader, whoso'er thou art,
What thy God has given, impart.

Hide it not within the ground;
Send the cup of blessing round.

Hast thou power?—the weak defend.
Light?—give light: thy knowledge lend.
Rich?—remember Him who gave.
Free?—be brother to the slave.

Called a blessing to inherit,
Bless, and richer blessings merit:
Give, and more shall yet be given:
Love, and serve, and look for Heaven.



CARISBROOK CASTLE.

There are few edifices now remaining in England that lay claim to so venerable an antiquity as the celebrated pile of which we are about to give an account. Carisbrook Castle stands about a mile to the southwest of Newport, the principal town of the Isle of Wight, and consequently almost in the centre of the island. It is erected upon an eminence, from which it overlooks the town of Carisbrook, now an insignificant village, but which, before Newport rose into importance, enjoyed the dignity of metropolis of the Isle of Wight under the feudal lords who possessed the island until 1291.

It is thought by some antiquaries that a portion of the present building was of Saxon construction, as early as the sixth century. After the Norman invasion the castle was greatly enlarged by William Fitzosborne, Earl of Hereford, to whom it was given by the Conqueror, and additions have since been repeatedly made to it. In the reign of Elizabeth, the buildings were for the first time enclosed by a wall faced with stone, and defended by a deep moat, as they now remain. The space contained within this enclosure amounts to about twenty acres, and the entire circuit of the fortifications is three-fourths of a mile.

The principal and most ancient part of the castle, however, is that which stands on the west side, next to the entrance, and forms an almost regular parallelogram, with the corners rounded off. Much of this belongs undoubtedly to the Norman age, and a small portion of it is probably Saxon. The Keep is built on the north side of the fortress upon the summit of an artificial mount, of nearly sixty feet in height, the ascent to which is by a flight of seventy-two steps. Only the lower apartment now remains, which is an irregular polygon, of about

sixty feet broad in the widest part. Over this there appears to have been originally, at least one other story, of which however nothing now remains. The prospect from the top is of great beauty and extent, comprehending not only the whole of the island, but a considerable part of Southampton water, and of some of the adjoining counties. In the centre of the Keep is a well of three hundred feet in depth, but which has been for some time covered over as useless and dangerous. In ancient times such an accommodation must have been indispensable in this the heart of the fortress, and the last retreat of the garrison when pressed by a besieging enemy. In the earlier ages of English history Carisbrook Castle was frequently attacked, especially by the French. In 1377 it is related, that a band of invaders of that nation having made an assault upon it, fell into an ambuscade in a narrow lane in the neighborhood, and were nearly all massacred. The scene of slaughter still retains the name of Deadman's-lane.



Stem of the Sago Tree, showing the pith from which the Sago is extracted.

SAGO.

The substance known in commerce under the name of sago is a farinaceous pithy matter, extracted from the trunk of a tree.

This tree is a native of the southeast of Asia, and of the islands of the Indian Ocean, where it grows spontaneously, and is perfected without any culture. This circumstance occurring with regard to a substance highly nutritive, in a climate which disposes the human frame to inaction, occasions the adoption of sago in many places as the general food of the population, to the neglect of other plants, the cultivation of which would call for some amount of exertion.

The sago, or, as it is called in the Molucca Islands, the libley tree, is of peculiar growth. The trunk, which is formed of the bases of the leaves, grows at first very slowly, and is covered with thorns; so soon, however, as the stem is once formed, the growth of the tree proceeds with very great rapidity, so that it speedily attains its full height of thirty feet, with a girth of five or six feet, losing in this stage its thorny accompaniments. Like the cocoa-nut tree, the sago has no distinct bark that can be peeled off, but the trunk consists of a long, hard, ligneous tube, about two inches thick, the internal area of which is filled with a kind of farinaceous pith, intermixed with numerous longitudinal fibres. The maturity of the tree is known by the transpiration of a kind of whitish dust through the pores of the leaves, and when this appears the trunk is felled near to the ground.

The best account of this tree, and of the mode

of preparing its pith for use as human food, is to be seen in Forrest's account of the Molucca Islands: it is to the following effect.

"The tree being felled, is cut into lengths of five or six feet. A part of the hard wood is then sliced off, and the workman, coming to the pith, cuts across the longitudinal fibres and the pith together, leaving a part at each end uncut, so that when it is excavated, there remains a trough, into which the pulp is again put, mixed with water, and beaten with a piece of wood. Then the fibres, separated from the pulp, float at top, and the flour subsides. After being cleared in this manner by several waters, the pulp is put into cylindrical baskets made of the leaves of the tree; and if it is to be kept some time, those baskets are generally sunk in fresh water to keep it moist. One tree will produce from two to four hundred weight of flour.

"We seldom or never see sago in this country but in a granulated state. To bring it into this state from the flour, it must be first moistened and passed through a sieve into an iron pot (very shallow) held over a fire, which enables it to assume a globular form. Thus all our grained sago is half baked and will keep long. The pulp or powder of which this is made will also keep long if preserved from the air, but if exposed, it presently turns sour."

We learn also from the same authority, that loaves of bread are sometimes made in the Molucca Islands of the pith of the sago, and that these loaves are baked in small ovens, "the floors of which are divided by means of partitions into cells about the size of an octavo volume."

The leaf of the sago is used in the same quarter for covering houses, and in that climate will not need to be renewed oftener than once in seven years.

When the sago tree is cut down, its vegetative power still remains in the root, which again puts forth its leaves and forms the trunk, and this proceeds again through its different stages until it is again subjected to the axe, and made to yield its alimentary contents for the service of man.

Sago is also produced from many varieties of palms, but the tree here described is that which furnishes the best. The produce of the *Cycas circinalis*, so often erroneously mentioned as yielding the sago of commerce, is very inferior.

Catching Cold.—It may seem a little contradictory that temporary local heat should produce cold, but it is nevertheless true. How soon a person who has been in too close a room, or too near the fire, gets cold and shivering, compared with one who has been in a colder apartment, at a greater distance from the fire, or in the open air. Half the colds and coughs with which people are annoyed in the winter are owing to their winter habitations being too warm: and those complaints are far more frequent in towns than in the open places of the country. When people go hot into the cold air, the evaporation from the surfaces of their bodies is so rapid, as not only to make them feel cold and shiver, but if it be long continued, to injure the little follicles of the skin, which, in the healthy states of the body, remove much of the waste matter that is unfit for the purposes of life; and thus that matter remains in the system, and acts as a poison. Washing with warm water in cold weather has much the same effect; and they who resort to that in order to avoid the temporary influence of the cold, thereby subject themselves to it for the whole day. In summer, warm water is a luxury, and a wholesome, and almost immediately a cooling luxury: but they who would escape chilblains and frost-biting should avoid it in winter.

The philosopher leaves the fashion of his clothes to the tailor; it is as great a weakness to be out of the fashion as to affect to be in it.



THE BASS ROCK.

"The fierce Dane,
Upon the eastern coast of Lothian landed,
Near to that place where the sea-rock immense,
Amazing Bass, looks o'er a fertile land."

Home's Douglas.

One of the first objects that strikes the eye of the traveller, after he has crossed the Scottish border by Berwick, is this remarkable rock in the sea, which lies at the mouth of the Frith of Forth, at the distance of about a mile and a half from the coast of East Lothian. It continues to be seen during the rest of the journey, until the traveller approaches Haddington, when the mountain called Berwick-law, and other high grounds, conceal it from view. It is about a mile in circumference, and not much more than four hundred feet above the level of the sea, but looks considerably higher. The water that washes its precipitous sides is from thirty to forty fathoms deep. The rock can be approached in safety only in fine weather; and its stark, rugged cliffs are only accessible by one narrow passage that faces the main land. Close by this only landing-place is a castle, now in ruins, but once a place of great strength and some importance in history, consisting of four square towers and connecting works. During the war of religion between Charles II., and the Covenanters this castle was converted into a state prison, and became the solitary residence of many west country Whigs and recusants. When the dynasty of the Stewarts was driven from the throne of the United Kingdom, the Bass Rock was occupied by a brave garrison devoted to that ill-fated family, who obstinately defended it for several years, and gained for the place the dubious honor of its being the last spot of

British ground to yield to the improved and more constitutional government introduced by the revolution of 1688. Besides the castle there seems once to have been a hermitage and some other habitations on this rock; but soldiers, monks, prisoners, and peasants have all been long gone; and now the only inhabitants of the Bass are immense flocks of Solan geese and some score of sheep, that contrive to climb up its precipitous sides and find pasture on its summit.

The base of the rock is perforated completely through from east to west by a natural cavern fearfully dark in the centre, and through which the sea frequently dashes and roars with astounding violence, but which may be examined at low water on a calm day. When the tide is out, the water remaining in this curious fissure, at a few yards from its mouth, is not more than knee-deep. The young fishermen often go through it though its aspect is exceedingly terrific. At one of the entrances to this cavern it appears as if the Bass were composed of two immense rocks, the larger of which leans diagonally against the smaller, leaving this narrow chasm between them at the bottom, but closely joining with each other at all other points. There are several other caverns of considerable length, the openings into which resemble fretted Gothic windows or doors that have been made to deviate from the perpendicular by time or violence. The pencil of an able artist alone could convey an idea of their singularity and beauty.

The Bass is now the property of the family of the Dalrymples, of North Berwick, a little fishing-town on the coast, about three miles distant from

the rock. It is of course more picturesque than profitable: about thirty pounds per annum are paid for the birds, and ten pounds for the right of pasturage. The island pays annually twelve Solan geese to the minister, and two to the schoolmaster of North Berwick, as part of their stipends. These geese, the principal inhabitants of the islet, are white birds, considerably smaller than the domesticated geese. They differ in many points from any other species of wild geese. They are birds of passage, and so very particular in the choice of their residence, that it is said, that of all the lonely rocks and islets of Scotland they are only found here and on Ailsa Craig, a rock in the Frith of Clyde, very like the Bass. They regularly arrive, year after year, at the end of February or beginning of March. At first a small flight is seen to wheel round the rock, and then alight on its precipitous sides with the most clamorous screams; these are soon followed by other flights, each more numerous than that which preceded it, and in a very few days after the arrival of the scouts and vanguard, the whole of the migratory colony is assembled, and no more stragglers are seen to arrive. They generally leave the Bass in parties, as they came, towards the end of October, though, occasionally, when the winter is mild and fish abundant in the surrounding sea, they forego their journey to distant parts of the world, and stay there the whole year round. Last winter, for instance, they did not leave the Bass.

They lay several eggs each, but only sit upon one, which they hatch on the face of the bare rock. Their season of incubation is in June and July, when the cliffs literally seem covered with their snow-white plumage.

Their flesh has a strong fishy disagreeable flavor. A curious method is used by the fishermen in the neighborhood to catch them: they take a small wooden plank, which is sunk a little below the surface of the sea by means of a stone or a piece of lead; on this plank they put a herring, and then drag the plank after them by a long rope, which leaves the trap considerably astern of the boat. The bird, attracted by the sight of its favorite food, wheels two or three times in the air, and then plunges down with such rapidity, that it often transfixes the plank with its bill, and is almost invariably stunned or killed by the shock.

The plumage of the Solan geese, which is beautifully white and soft, is sold to upholsterers and others, who employ it in making feather-beds. The old man, who rents the rock, plucks the birds before they are sent to market. When deprived of their plumage they sell on an average at about seven-pence each. A good many of them find their way to the markets of Dunbar, Haddington, and Edinburgh, where many persons, who have been accustomed to it, do not find their flesh unpalatable, and use it at breakfast. The old man only takes the young birds, but sportsmen and others, who occasionally disregard his rights, shoot whatever comes in their way, though it is scarcely possible to eat the flesh of the old birds.

The writer of this short account, who has just returned from an excursion to the Bass, (May 9, 1833,) was much amused by the old fisherman's description of the mode of taking the young birds. It is precisely the same as that adopted in the Feroe Islands, Norway, and other rocky coasts. The geese hatch and bring up their young on the

most precipitous sides of the rocks, where man has no possible means of access, except by being suspended from the head of the precipice. When this dangerous operation is to be performed, a party, never less than six men, climb up the Bass to some spot where there is firm footing, and which is immediately above a brood of the geese, which always lie in large flocks crowded together. The man who is to descend is secured by a strong rope tied round his body, and a second rope, with a leaden weight at its end, is dropped down by his side within reach of his hand. Both these ropes are kept fast by the men on the top of the rock, who gradually lower their companion down the sides of the perpendicular cliff. The man, in his descent, aids himself, or rests himself occasionally, by putting his toes in the crannies or on slight projections of the rock. The second rope, which serves to steady him, he grasps with his left hand, and in his right hand he carries a strong stick to knock down the young birds, and keep off the old ones, whose bite is exceedingly severe. As soon as he reaches the point where the brood lies, he proceeds with all expedition to knock them on the head, on which they fall from the narrow ledge where they were sitting, and drop into the sea at the foot of the rock, where they are taken up by men in boats. Great havoc is thus made on the poor birds in a very few seconds, and when their destroyer has disposed of all he can reach, he is pulled up to the top of the rock.

The eastern side of the Bass is most frequented by the Solan geese. As the writer approached, on the morning of the ninth May, an almost incredible number of geese flew thence, looking like snow blown from a mountain's side. Their united scream, which is peculiarly wild and shrill, seemed to reproach his intrusion as they wheeled over his head. In going round the rock, the geese flew out in great numbers in many other places, and besides them morrits or puffens, and tommy-nories or hawks, darted from the side of the cliffs in countless numbers.

When the writer reached the landing-place, he found some men in a large boat with twenty-two sheep that were brought to the Bass for pasture. The first part of the ascent, which lay over steep slippery rocks, was not performed without some difficulty either by the sheep or the men. On the top of the rock, however, the poor sheep found excellent grass. They were to be left here until October or November, when the shepherd said, it was sure they would be found fat and in the finest condition. A variety of beautiful wild flowers, in full bloom, sprung up among the pasture and from fissures in the rocks.

Many of the geese had already laid their eggs and were sitting on them. On the side of a cliff above the castle—the only place where the traveler could get at all near to them—about a hundred that were thus occupied, allowed him to approach almost within reach of them before they would leave their eggs. They then rose on the wing, uttering their wildest screams, and hovered over their eggs until the intruder departed, when they instantly returned to their positions. The eggs lay on the bare rock without any thing to protect them. Unlike the tame goose, these birds had a very bold and fierce appearance.

On the shore of the main land, immediately opposite to the Bass Castle, stand the striking ruins of Tantallan Castle, which form one of the finest

features in the view, that is, on all sides, varied and picturesque, and crowded with historical associations.

POPULAR INFORMATION ON SCIENCE.

No. IV. HAIL.

Hail is unquestionably formed by the congelation of vapor in the higher regions of the atmosphere; and this arises from the warmer air in which the vapor was suspended mixing suddenly with an intensely cold current of air. Hail is generally defined to be frozen rain; but it differs from ice in this, that the hailstones are not formed of single pieces of ice, but of small particles agglutinated together, some of which are very hard, like perfect ice, while others are soft as snow, or resemble snow that has been hardened by frost. When hailstones are broken open, or cut across, they are sometimes within found to be of a spongy structure; sometimes the interior presents a very beautiful radiated appearance, and not unfrequently exhibits regular and very remarkable concentric plates. Generally, the centre of the hailstone is harder than its surface, and occasionally presents us with a nucleus, or sort of core, imbedded in which, bits of straw, wood, and earth, have been found; substances which, it may be presumed, were elevated from the surface of the earth by the action of a whirlwind, or some similar meteor. Hailstones vary much in shape: they are generally oval or round, but sometimes thin, flat, irregular globular, angular, pyramidal, occasionally irregular, having a central point whence proceed numerous icy spiculæ, like rays in all directions; and, also, although more rarely, they have appeared as six sided prisms. A few years ago, a tremendous storm occurred in Gloucestershire, the most remarkable circumstance attending which, was the hail shower by which it was accompanied. "It may be doubted," says the *Athenæum*, "whether such a name as hail be applicable, for the masses of ice which fell in places where the storm most fiercely raged, bore no resemblance to hailstones in magnitude or formation, most of them being of a very irregular shape, broad, flat, and ragged, and many measuring nine inches in circumference; they appeared like fragments of a vast plate of ice broken into small masses by its descent towards the earth." On the 4th of June, in the year 1814, hail fell at Cincinnati, Ohio, the pieces of which are described in the account read to the Literary and Philosophical Society of New York, as having been apparently "aggregated of numerous others, which were likewise composed of smaller ones, while some of more than ordinary size appeared single, as if they had been snowballs immersed in water, and refrozen."

Hailstones vary considerably in size—from that of a nullet seed to that of a pigeon's egg—the smaller generally falling in the more northern climates, the larger in the south of Europe. Hailstones have fallen in Scotland which have been found to weigh five ounces; in North America they have been picked up weighing fifteen ounces; and in Oct. 5, 1831, one fell at Constantinople which weighed more than a pound. "I had long refused," observes Volney, in his *View of the Climate &c. of America*, "to credit the existence of those hailstones said to weigh ounces, and even pounds, of which newspapers and travellers too frequently speak. But the storm of the 13th of July 1788 affords me the conviction of my own senses. I was at Ponehartrain, ten miles from Versailles; and

going to see a sheep-walk at six o'clock in the morning, I found the rays of the sun intolerably scorching; the air was calm and suffocating, that is, it was extremely rarefied; the sky was without a cloud, yet I heard four or five claps of thunder. About a quarter after seven, a cloud appeared in the southwest, and then a very brisk wind arose. In a few minutes, the cloud filled the horizon, and speeded toward the zenith with an increase of the wind; and a hail storm suddenly came on, the stones not falling perpendicularly, but at an angle of forty-five degrees, and so large that you would have taken them for the pieces of mortar of a roof fallen down. I could not believe my own eyes; many of the stones were larger than a man's fist, and I observed, too, that several of these were only fragments of larger pieces. When I could safely venture my hand out of the door of the house to which I had very opportunely retired for shelter, I took up one, and found it to weigh more than five ounces by a common pair of scales. Its shape was very irregular, and it had three principal horns as big as the thumb, and almost as long, projecting from the nucleus, on which they were collected. I have been credibly informed that a hailstone at St. Germaine's weighed more than three pounds, and after this I know not what surpasses belief."

It is related, that, during the wars of Louis the Twelfth in Italy, in 1510, there was for some time a horrible darkness, after which the clouds broke into thunder and lightning, and there fell hailstones of one hundred pounds weight. On the 19th of May 1809, a severe hail-storm occurred in the neighborhood of London. The hailstones that fell were many of them a full inch in diameter. Such was the velocity with which they were precipitated, that in many instances a clear round hole was left in the glass they pierced. "The water of the river, (says the account,) lashed by the hail and raised by the wind, resembled a caldron boiling violently, rather than waves with breakers. The damage done was so great, that a London newspaper estimated it at 200,000 squares of glass broken in sashes, skylights, conservatories, oratories, hot-houses, &c., besides the injury done to the crops in fields and gardens. The foliage of large elms was cut off, and scattered on the ground to a furlong's distance to leeward; and fruit trees, besides being thus stripped, received wounds in their bark which were visible long after."

It is calculated that a single drop of water, the diameter of which is only the one-thousandth of an inch, will, in descending through the air, acquire a velocity of nine or ten feet every second; wherefore it is less surprising that hailstones of such magnitude and weight should occasionally prove destructive, not only to delicate plants, but even to animals; for a pebble, even of the ordinary size of a hailstone, were it to fall from the mouth of a well on the head of a man, would kill him; and meteoric stones, which are no larger, bury themselves deep in the ground, and have been known even to force themselves through the body of a house, and penetrate some inches into the cellar ground.

CHANGE.

BY L. E. L.

The wind is sweeping o'er the hill;
It hath a mournful sound,
As if it felt the difference
Its weary wing hath found.

A little while that wandering wind
Swept over leaf and flower :
For there was green for every tree
And bloom for every hour.

It wandered through the pleasant wood,
And caught the dove's lone song ;
And by the garden beds, and bore:
The rose's breath along.
But hoarse and sullenly it sweeps ;
No rose is open now—
No music, for the wood-dove's nest
Is vacant on the bough.

Oh, human heart and wandering wind,
Go look upon the past ;
The likeness is the same with each,
Their summer did not last.
Each mourns above the things it loved—
One o'er a flower and leaf ;
The other over hopes and joys,
Whose beauty was as brief.



SONGS AND DANCES OF THE NEW ZEALANDERS.

The New Zealanders have a variety of national dances; but none of them have been minutely described. Some of them are said to display much grace of movement: others are chiefly remarkable for the extreme violence with which they are performed. As among the other South Sea tribes, when there are more dancers than one, the most perfect uniformity of step and attitude is preserved by all of them; and they do not consider it a dance at all when this rule is not attended to. Capt. Dillon very much amused some of those who came on board his ship by a sample of English dancing, which he made his men give them on deck. A company of soldiers going through the manual exercise would certainly have come much nearer their notions of what a dance ought to be.

We are as yet very imperfectly informed in regard to the distinctions of rank, and other matters appertaining to the constitution of society, in New Zealand. It would appear, however, that, as among most other Asiatic races, the great body of the people are in a state approaching to what we should call slavery, or vassalage, to the few owners of the soil. Yet we are nearly altogether ignorant of the real extent of the authority possessed by the latter over the former. Some circumstances seem to

indicate, that in so far as respects the right of commanding their services, the chiefs are not absolutely the masters of the common people who live within their territories; while, on the other hand, they would appear to have the power, in some cases, of even putting them to death, according to their mere pleasure. Although there are no written laws in New Zealand, all these matters are, no doubt, regulated by certain universally understood rules, liberal enough, in all probability, in the license which they allow to the tyranny of the privileged class, but still fixing some boundaries to its exercise, which will accordingly be but rarely overstepped. Thus, the power which the chief seems to enjoy of depriving any of his slaves of life, may be limited to certain occasions only; as, for instance, the death of some member of the family, whose manes, it is conceived, demand to be propitiated by such an offering. That in such cases slaves are often sacrificed in New Zealand, we have abundant evidence. Captain Cruise even informs us, that when a son of one of the chiefs died in Mr Marsden's house, in New South Wales, it required the interposition of that gentleman's authority to prevent some of the boy's countrymen, who were with him, from killing a few of their slaves, in honor of their deceased friend. On other occasions, it is likely that the life of the slave can only be taken when he has been convicted of some delinquency; although, as the chief is the sole judge of his criminality, he will find this, it may be thought, but a slight protection. The domestic slaves of the chiefs, however, it is quite possible, and even likely, are much more completely at the mercy of their caprice and passion, than the general body of the common people, whose vassalage may, after all, consist in little more than the obligation of following them to their wars, and rendering them obedience in such other matters of public concern.

Use of Forks.—A foreigner remarks, in his work on Great Britain, that an Englishman may be discovered anywhere if he be observed at table, because he places his fork upon the left side of his plate; a Frenchman by using the fork alone without the knife; and a German by planting it perpendicularly into his plate; and a Russian by using it as a toothpick. Holding the fork is a national custom, and nations are characterized by their peculiarities in the use of the fork at table. An affectation of the French usages in this respect seems now to be gaining ground in this country.

Whenever you speak any thing, think well, and look narrowly what you speak; of whom you speak; and to whom you speak, lest you bring yourself into great trouble.

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THE SECRETARY BIRD.

This singular bird, with the legs of a crane and the head of an eagle, of which a characteristic representation is given in the above wood-cut, is an inhabitant of the southern parts of Africa. His presence there is a peculiar blessing to the natives; for they are indebted to him for the destruction of a vast quantity of insects and reptiles, whose multiplication, unless their numbers were thus kept down, would be a formidable calamity. The bird has been called by the names of secretary, messenger, archer, and lastly serpent-eater. The latter name truly indicates his habits;—the former are mere fanciful appellations. The first is derived from an imaginary resemblance of the bunch of long feathers that hang loose on the back of his head, to a pen stuck in the ear of a writer; the second refers to his rapid strides; and the third to a habit which he possesses of throwing straws with his beak something in the manner of an arrow from a bow. He is still best known by the name of the Secretary.

The Secretary belongs to the class of rapacious birds, and he is now placed by naturalists between the vultures and eagles. He was formerly classed among the wading birds, on account of the length of his legs. His conformation, as well as his habits, attest the correctness of the more recent classification. The Secretaries, like the other large birds

of prey, build their nests on the tops of the highest trees. They seek their food both on the dry sands and the pestiferous marshes. On the one they find serpents and lizards; in the other tortoises and large insects. Their mode of destroying life is very curious, for they always kill their prey before swallowing it. Whether the Secretary meet with a serpent or a tortoise, he invariably crushes it under the sole of his foot; and such is the skill and force with which he gives the blow, that it is very rarely that a serpent of an inch or more in diameter survives the first stroke. When he meets with a serpent that is large enough to oppose a long resistance to him, he flies off with his prey in his beak to a great height, and then dropping it, follows it in its descent with wonderful rapidity, so as to be ready to strike it when it falls stunned on the ground. M. le Vaillant describes an obstinate battle between a Secretary and a large serpent, in which the bird struck his enemy with the bony protuberance of his wing; but the mode of crushing with his foot is the more common.

The male and female equally labor in the construction of their large nest, in which the female generally lays two eggs. Their unions do not take place till after the most obstinate battles among the males. In general these birds exhibit no fierce-

ness, and they are easily domesticated. Their natural habits must be of singular advantage to man in places where reptiles abound; and for this reason the French have endeavored to establish the Secretary in their colonies of Guadeloupe and Martinique.

ANTIPATHIES TO ANIMALS.

Many men have strange antipathies to animals. Some of these are accountable as depending upon form; others, profoundly mysterious in the why and the wherefore. Ladies generally fall into hysterics at the approach of a spider. Snakes are generally objects of fear, rather than antipathy, from the deadly power which some of the species possess; but why a beautiful lizard, a sleek mouse or a rat, should be objects of antipathy, it is difficult to conjecture: elegant in form, and harmless, they might at least be looked upon with complacency. The sight of a rat has been known to throw even the male sex into convulsions. Claude Prosper Juliot de Crebillon, a name conspicuous in the annals of French literature, was confined in the Bastille, in pursuance of the caprices of one of the old Bourbon satraps, who often shut up in dungeons the men of the age most conspicuous for talent, and who were known to promulgate unsavory truths. One night, Crebillon felt what he thought to be a cat reposing by his side in bed: glad of such a companion in that silent mansion, where to many a prisoner "hope never came," he stretched out his hand to caress it; but it ran away. The following day, when seated at his dinner, he saw, through the "darkness visible" of his cell, an animal squatted, *vis-à-vis*, on his table, and was soon able to perceive that it had a long slender tail, and was not a cat, which at first he imagined it to be, but an enormous rat. He had an unconquerable antipathy to rats; and, springing from his seat, cried aloud with terror, and overturned his table; the noise brought in a turnkey, who found him pale, and nearly senseless; and it was a long time ere he recovered himself. This animal had been the companion of a preceding prisoner, who had tamed it; and so well did the horrible solitude of the Bastille operate in removing the antipathy of Crebillon to these creatures, that at length he became reconciled to its company, and even shared his provisions with it. The case of Crebillon may serve as a useful hint for effecting the cure of most other antipathies to animals.

Many men have also strange antipathies to cats; and so strongly does the sight of them affect some individuals, that their whole frame becomes agitated. A striking instance of this kind came within our own personal knowledge. The late Captain Logan, of Knockshinnoch, in Ayrshire, had such an unconquerable aversion to all cats, that he would not remain in the room with one on any account whatever. We have known ladies to expostulate with him on the affectionate and harmless dispositions of their grimalkins, vowing that they would touch nothing larger than a rat; but their eloquence was invariably lost on the captain, who lent a deaf ear to all their pleadings.

He could detect immediately the presence of a cat from smell, even although he could not possibly see it in the room, being under a sofa, or some such place; and he uniformly insisted on its being turned out of the room, before he would compose himself to enter into conversation.

On one occasion, while his regiment was stationed in Tynemouth, we happened to accompany the captain to pay a visit to the family of General R—. We found several visitors in the house besides the family. Among the rest was the late Sir C— G—, then commanding the northern district of England, and some officers of his staff. When deeply engaged in a political conversation on the events of the times, the domestic cat, a frolicsome young animal, came scampering into the room, when the gallant captain started from his seat, and mounted a chair with all possible alacrity, to the no small astonishment of all present, as none of them were aware of his dread of cats. Every body supposed the captain had been seized with a sudden fit of lunacy; the ladies bounced up, several made their way towards the door, and even the two patriot generals and the staff-officers seemed to entertain doubts as to their personal safety; and, in particular, we noticed Sir C— G— keeping an attentive watch on the handle of the captain's sword. In short, every countenance but our own bore marks of anxiety, and we laughed outright, to the no small displeasure of the general's lady, who thought it no joke, and entreated us to pacify our friend.

We must mention, that Captain Logan was then a man of about thirty years of age, six feet one inch in height, and of a very athletic form; so, to be subjected to the grasp of such an individual was no joke, as the general's lady expressed herself; but as we knew the poor captain was quite *compos* and harmless, we enjoyed the joke amazingly. The old general entreated of him to come down, while the captain obstinately refused until puss was dismissed. The general in vain tried to convince him of her innocent intentions, which increased the convictions of all present that the captain was cracked. By this time all the ladies had made good their retreat, and some of the younger ones stood peeping in at the door, with the handle in their hand, in case of the captain trying to follow them. Things beginning to assume a serious aspect, we lifted puss, and rung the bell for a servant to remove it out of the room, after which the captain descended, and in a few minutes resumed his wonted coolness. An explanation followed, and this irresistible infirmity of the captain's was felt, by those who witnessed the ludicrous scene, more with pity than contempt; and we will venture to say, that such was the impression which was made at the time, that none who witnessed it will ever forget the scene.

THE PERSECUTIONS OF GENIUS.

The successful efforts of genius have not been more remarkable in the biography of eminent individuals, than the miseries which have often, during barbarous times, been endured by men of learning and scientific skill, through the ignorance of the very persons whom they intended to benefit. It is only, indeed, in the present age that we find the discoverers of new arts and sciences rewarded with the approbation of their fellows, if not with more substantial gifts; and in considering what has from first to last been the amount of the cruel persecutions of the learned, the existing generation can hardly believe it credible that so much wanton abuse of power can have been exercised. On this subject of melancholy interest; D'Israeli, in his *Curiosities of Literature*, has collected a variety of

striking particulars. "Before the times of Galileo and Harvey (says this accurate writer), the world believed in the diurnal immovability of the earth, and the stagnation of the blood; and for denying these, the one was persecuted, and the other ridiculed. The intelligence and virtue of Socrates were punished with death. Anaxagoras, when he attempted to propagate a just notion of the Supreme Being, was dragged to prison. Aristotle, after a long series of persecutions, swallowed poison. The great geometricians and chemists, as Gerbert, Roger Bacon, and others, were abhorred as magicians. Virgilus, Bishop of Saltzburg, having asserted that there existed antipodes, the Archbishop of Mentz declared him a heretic, and consigned him to the flames; and the Abbot Trithemius, who was fond of improving stenography, or the art of secret writing, having published some curious works on that subject, they were condemned, as works full of diabolical mysteries. Galileo was condemned at Rome publicly to disavow his sentiments regarding the motion of the earth, the truth of which must have been abundantly manifest: he was imprisoned in the Inquisition, and visited by Milton, who tells he was then *poor* and *old*. Cornelius Agrippa—a native of Cologne, and distinguished by turns as a soldier, philosopher, physician, chemist, lawyer, and writer, was believed to be a magician, and to be accompanied by a familiar spirit in the shape of a black dog. He was so violently persecuted that he was obliged to fly from place to place; the people beheld him as an object of horror, and not unfrequently, when he walked, he found the streets empty at his approach: this ingenious man died in an hospital. When Urban Grandier, another victim of the age, was led to the stake, a large fly settled on his head: a monk, who had heard that Beelzebub signifies in Hebrew the God of Flies, reported that he saw this spirit come to take possession of him.

"Even the learned themselves, who had not applied to natural philosophy, seem to have acted with the same feelings, as the most ignorant; for when Albertus Magnus—an eminent philosopher of the thirteenth century—constructed an automaton, or curious piece of mechanism, which sent forth distinct vocal sounds, Thomas Aquinas (a celebrated theologian) imagined it to be the work of the devil, and struck it with his staff, which, to the mortification of the great Albert, annihilated the labor of thirty years. Descartes was horribly persecuted in Holland when he first published his opinions: Voetius, a person of influence, accused him of atheism, and had even projected in his mind to have this philosopher burnt at Utrecht in an extraordinary fire, which, kindled on an eminence, might be observed by the seven provinces. This persecution of science and genius lasted till the close of the seventeenth century."

CURRAN'S INGENUITY.

A farmer, attending a fair with a hundred pounds in his pocket, took the precaution of depositing it in the hands of the landlord of the public house at which he stopped. Having occasion for it shortly afterwards, he resorted to mine host for the bailment, but the landlord, too deep for the countryman, wondered what hundred was meant, and was quite sure no such sum had ever been lodged in his hands by the astonished rustic. After ineffectual appeals to the recollection, and finally to the

honor of Bardolph, the farmer applied to Curran for advice. "Have patience, my friend," said the counsel: "speak the landlord civilly, and tell him you are convinced you must have left your money with some other person. Take a friend with you, and lodge with him another hundred in the presence of your friend, and then come to me." We must imagine and not commit to paper, the vociferations of the honest dupe, at such advice; however, moved by the rhetoric or authority of the worthy counsel, he followed it, and returned to his legal friend. "And now, sir, I don't see as I'm to be better off for this, if I get my second hundred again: but how is that to be done?" "Go and ask him for it when he is alone," said the counsel. "Ay, sir, but asking won't do, I'm afraid, without my witness at any rate." "Never mind, take my advice," said the counsel; "do as I bid you, and return to me." The farmer returned with his hundred, glad at any rate to find that safe again in his possession. "Now, sir, I suppose I must be content; but I don't see as I'm much better off." "Well, then," said the counsel, "now take your friend with you, and ask the landlord for the hundred pounds your friend saw you leave with him." We need not add, that the wily landlord found he had been taken off his guard, while our honest friend (whom one would almost wish to have tried two the second time) returned to thank his counsel exultingly, with both hundreds in his pocket.



THE ROAD OF THE SIMPLON.

The Simplon is a mountain situated in the chain of the higher Alps, between the Valais and Redmont. At the beginning of the present century, a magnificent road was made over this mountain by order of Napoleon Bonaparte. This road was executed at the expense of the French government and of the kingdom of Italy. It extends from Glis to Domo d'Ossola, is twenty-five feet wide, and of a very gentle slope through the whole of its course.

The works on the side of Valais were directed by French engineers, and those on the southern part by Italians, who had much greater difficulties

to encounter, being obliged continually to work upon the hardest rocks. This magnificent road, its bridges, and numerous galleries cut through the rock, must rank among the most remarkable monuments of the kind in the world. Add to this the beautiful and wild scenery which Nature has displayed so lavishly in this region, and there can be no wonder that it is a prominent object of curiosity to travellers.

The road begins at Glis, and after crossing a covered bridge of uncommon height and beauty over the Simplon, at the distance of a league and a half you reach Ried. You next go through a forest of larch trees, and after having proceeded along dreadful precipices, reach the first gallery, which is ten paces long. You now cross the Kander over a bridge eighty feet high, and after half an hour's walk you arrive at a few scattered houses called Persal, where you may procure refreshments. Beyond Persal, the road, which continues suspended over the brink of the precipice, continues half a league in long windings as far as the bridge of Oesbach. You then enter the second gallery which is thirty paces long.

You then leave on your left the glacier of Kaltwasser, from which descend four cascades, whose waters are carried across the road, in aqueducts of a beautiful construction, and then fall into the abyss. You then arrive at the third gallery, fifty paces long. At a short distance from this is the most elevated point, indicated by a kind of mile-stone.

On the south side, the road is still more remarkable. A little beyond the fourth gallery, which is eighty paces long, you meet the beautiful cascade of the Frissinone; near which is the fifth gallery, and the longest of all, being two hundred and two paces in extent. At no great distance from Gondo where there is a tower seven stories high, is seen a cascade that falls from the defile of Zwischbergen, in which there is a gold mine. Before the new road was made, merchandise was transported on mules, and, in stormy weather, hundreds of beasts of burden were obliged to stop for shelter during several days at the inn of Gondo.

A little below Gondo, a small chapel is built, on the confines of the Valais and of Italy. The first Italian village is called San Marco; next comes Isella, or Dazio, where travellers are searched. You soon after enter a dreary defile which leads to the little village of Dwedro, occupying a pleasant district, though it is immediately surrounded by barren rocks. You then enter a narrow wild valley, pass over two bridges into the sixth and last gallery, and arrive at Crevola. Here you pass over the Veriola, across a bridge that is a master-piece of architecture and sixty yards long. From thence to Domino d' Ossola it is one league.

Whenever a storm succeeds several rainy days, it is advisable to stop at this place, to avoid the danger of being crushed to death by the stones that fall from the tops of the mountains. The valley is very narrow, most of the rocks are split, and the blocks on the summits, being rendered slippery by the rain, and loosened by the wind, fall along the rocks as thick as a shower of hail. Both in spring and winter this road is extremely dangerous.

STANDARD OF VALUE

The worth of every thing is determined by the demand for it. In the deserts of Arabia, a pitcher of cold water is of more value than a mountain of gold.

SPANISH ETIQUETTE.

BY D'ISRAELI.

The etiquette or rules to be observed in the royal palaces is necessary, writes Baron Bielfield, for keeping order at court. In Spain it was carried to such length as to make martyrs of their kings. Here is an instance, at which, in spite of the fatal consequences it produced, one cannot refrain from smiling.

Philip the Third was gravely seated by the fire-side: the fire-maker of the court had kindled so great a quantity of wood, that the monarch was nearly suffocated with heat, and his *grandeur* would not suffer him to rise from the chair; the domestics could not *presume* to enter the apartment, because it was against the *etiquette*. At length the Marquis de Potat appeared, and the king ordered him to damp the fires; but he excused himself, alleging that he was forbidden by the *etiquette* to perform such a function, for which the Duke d'Usseda ought to be called upon, as it was his business. The duke was gone out; the fire burnt fiercer; and the king endured it, rather than derogate from his *dignity*. But his blood was heated to such a degree, that an erysipelas of the head appeared the next day, which, succeeded by a violent fever, carried him off in 1621, in the twenty-fourth year of his age.

The palace was once on fire; a soldier, who knew the king's sister was in her apartment, and must inevitably have been consumed in a few moments by the flames, at the risk of his life rushed in, and brought her highness safe out in his arms: but the Spanish *etiquette* was here wofully broken into! The loyal soldier was brought to trial, and, as it was impossible to deny that he had entered her apartment, the judges condemned him to die! The Spanish princess, however, condescended, in consideration of the circumstance, to *pardon* the soldier, and very benevolently saved his life!

When Isabella, mother of Philip the Second, was ready to be delivered of him, she commanded that all the lights should be extinguished; that if the violence of her pain should occasion her face to change color, no one might perceive it. And when the midwife said, "Madam, cry out, that will give you ease," she answered, in good Spanish, "How dare you give me such advice? I would rather die than cry out."

"Spain gives us *pride*—which Spain to all the earth
May largely give, nor fear herself a dearth!"

CHURCHILL.

Philip the Third was a weak bigot, who suffered himself to be governed by his ministers. A patriot wished to open his eyes, but he could not pierce through the crowds of his flatterers; besides that, the voice of patriotism heard in a corrupted court would have become a crime never pardoned. He found, however, an ingenious manner of conveying to him his censure. He caused to be laid on his table one day a letter sealed, which bore this address—"To the King of Spain, Philip the Third, at present in the service of the Duke of Lerma."

In a similar manner, Don Carlos, son to Philip the Second, made a book with empty pages, to contain the voyages of his father, which bore this title—"The Great and Admirable Voyages of the King, Mr. Philip." All these voyages consisted of going to the Escorial from Madrid, and returning to Madrid from the Escorial. Jests of this kind at length cost him his life.—*Curiosities of Literature.*



THE PELICAN.

The wood-cut at the beginning of this article represents a group of pelicans, drawn from specimens in the Zoological Gardens. The bird is familiar to most persons; for it has long been a favorite of the showman, who sometimes astonishes his visitors by placing his head under the large membrane, or bag, of the lower mandible, and then drawing it over his skull, like a cap. The showman is not only ready to perform this fete; but he delights to tell his audience those wonderful stories which are popularly associated with the history of the pelican, and which, indeed, have been as attractive to the old writers of natural history, and to the poets, as to the most credulous and uninstructed. Nobody, perhaps, now believes that this singular bird feeds its young with its blood, although the pictures of the travelling menageries give us the most faithful representations of such a surprising circumstance; but there are many who consider that the use which the pelican makes of its great bag, is to carry a provision of water to its young across the desert. The real history of the pelican contradicts these fancies; they belong to poetry and romance, in which they may be beautifully employed. The notion that the mother-bird carries water across the desert has been adorned with many curious details,—such as that she pours out the grateful supply into her rocky nest—that her young there bathe themselves—and that the beasts of the forest instinctively seek out the spot, and having assuaged their thirst, leave the pelican family unmolested. Southey has told this story in his *Thalaba*:—

“The desert pelican had built her nest
In that deep solitude,
And now, returned from distant flight,

Fraught with the river stream,
Her load of water had disburden'd there;
Her young in the refreshing bath
Dipt down their callow heads,
Fill'd the swollen membrane from their plumeless throat
Pendant, and bills yet soft;
And buoyant with arch'd breast,
Plid in unpractic'd stroke
The oars of their broad feet.
They, as the spotted prowler of the wild
Laps the cool wave, around their mother crowd,
And nestle underneath her outspread wings.
The spotted prowler of the wild
Lapt the cool wave, and satiate, from the west,
Guiltless of blood, withdrew.”

THALABA, book v

Pelicans are residents upon the banks of rivers and lakes, and upon the sea coasts. They habitually feed on fish, although they will sometimes devour reptiles and small quadrupeds. They are capable of rapid flight, and have an extraordinary power of ascending on high. This power is called into action by their mode of fishing. When they perceive, from their elevated position, a fish, or fishes, on the surface of the water, they dart down with inconceivable rapidity, and flapping their large wings so as to stun their prey, fill their pouches, and then retire to the shore to satisfy their voracious appetites. The fish thus carried away in the pouch undergo a sort of maceration before they are received into the stomach; and this grinding process renders the food fit for the young birds. No doubt the sanguinary traces which this operation leaves upon the plumage of the mother, have given birth to the fable that she feeds her nestlings with her blood.

The pelicans, as well as the cormorants, sometimes rest perched upon the branches of trees; but they never build their nests in such a position. They

always select a fracture of a rock, as near as possible to water. The male and female both labor to construct this nest, which is large and deep, and lined with moss and downy feathers. The female lays from two to four eggs, upon which she sits with unwearied patience for forty-three days, receiving sustenance from the male during the whole time. The young birds are at first gray; but their feathers attain their splendid white color after the third moulting.

There are several species of pelican, of which the white, or common, bears the scientific name of *Pelicanus onocrotalus*. They are found either in flocks, or singly, principally in Asia, Africa and South America, and sometimes in the south of Europe.

HINTS TO TALKERS.

"Aye free aff hand your story tell!"—Burns.

It is of no small importance to one who has to push his way in the world, that he should be able to express himself, on all occasions, in so ready and brief a manner, as to run no risk of tiring the individuals upon whom he may be more or less dependent for the means of his advancement. There is unfortunately some difficulty in attaining a proper medium between a fluency of speech, which is apt to lead to an excessive and tiresome copiousness, and that languor and difficulty of expression, which equally tires, without giving nearly the same quantity of talk. The former fault is more generally an accompaniment of youth than of age, while the latter is most frequently found in old people. All such peculiarities are no doubt in a great measure involuntary, as being intimately dependent on the talents and character of individuals; yet that they are susceptible of correction, and may be partly avoided, if we are on our guard against them, is also very certain.

An undue loquacity most frequently arises from a precipitancy of temper, and from being too full of one's self. If persons afflicted from the former source were to check themselves into a sobriety of ideas, and cast about a little before speaking, for the most straight-forward and simply demonstrative phraseology, wherein to express what they had to say, they would soon cure themselves: if those who err from vanity could only contrive, under beneficial advice, to pump a little of themselves out of themselves—if they would only be so good as to observe that others have ideas to express, and perhaps a little desire of showing them off, as well as they—they would also, we have no doubt, speedily lessen their malady. But, upon the whole, there is less annoyance experienced from this source than from the tedious twaddle, as it is called, of the duller kind of intellects; and a cure in the latter case is much more desperate. Yet there would be much less tiresome talk, and also less tiresome writing, if a few things were guarded against. A great deal, as every adroit talker and every experienced writer knows, lies in fixing an interest at the beginning: only take care not to alarm at the offset by the prospect of a long story, and you may afterwards continue to speak or scribble as long, almost, as you choose. Every one may have remarked how distressing it is in church to hear the preacher lay out his discourse into heads—so much to be said on this point, so much on that—next, an application of the whole, and, finally, a few words (that is, as many as can be spoken in ten minutes)

of exhortation. The idea of so many distinct parts in the composition causes it to look wearisome long from the very first, so that many lukewarm persons, who might otherwise have listened and caught some flying edification, think of nothing but how—in what posture—by what every-day subject of reflection within themselves—they may most easily pass the time. Neither preacher nor writer should ever say that he has any thing to say at all: he should begin with the subject itself, and never stop till it is exhausted. Two hours of attention may thus be obtained from many, who, if informed at the beginning that one was to be required for the purpose, would have refused to listen for a minute. So thoroughly does this hold good, that we have found ourselves deterred from proceeding with a story, on a shift taking place in the person of the narrator, or a distinct paper or document being introduced. A reader, indeed, should never know but that the article he is reading may end on the next page: the author is never sure of him till after he has been inveigled half way on.

The slow garrulity of old age, even to those who are most disposed to reverence gray hairs, is sometimes dreadful. For a young and busy man of quick ideas to find himself suddenly arrested by a venerable friend, who has some trifling but intricate piece of business to transact, or some document to read, or some long and personal story to tell, is one of the most striking distresses that can arise in the wide amphitheatre of human misery. The very unpacking of the spectacles is enough to make one sink and die. First, there is the important face, primming itself for the development of some superficial, but to it most mysterious and important circumstance. Then the hand is put into the pocket, and—not the spectacles, but the spectacle-case, drawn forth. The clasp is deliberately undone; the spectacles pulled out. You think the optical instrument is to be immediately put on. Not at all! It is laid down on the table, till the clasp is done again, and the case returned to the pocket. Then the spectacles are taken up—then a handkerchief is taken out to wipe them—then the process of wiping is carefully and slowly gone through—then the handkerchief is returned—and, finally—Oh protracted misery!—they are raised to the nose, where they are, perhaps, fully adjusted, about ten minutes after being drawn from the pocket; that is to say, if they have not been delayed much longer in consequence of a fresh burst of preliminary explanation and preparatory fiddle-faddle. Oh, if these respectable old gentlemen would but consider how much unfledged youth has to do before he be equally well feathered with themselves—how fast his intellect naturally runs—how irksome to be thus chained to the dray, when he would like to bound forward with the chariot—they would be heart-smitten with their cruelty, and from pity correct a fault to which every other kind of cure might be applied in vain.

THE COTTAGER'S SABBATH.

Ah! why should the thought of a world that is flying.
Encumber the pleasure of seasons like these?
Or, why should the Sabbath be sullied with sighing,
While Faith the bright things of Eternity sees!

Now let us repose from our care and our sorrow,
Let all that is anxious and sad pass away;
The rough cares of life lay aside till to-morrow,
But let us be tranquil and happy to-day.

Let us say to the world, should it tempt us to wander,
As Abraham said to his men on the plain;
There 's the mountain of prayer, I am going up yonder,
And tarry you here, till I seek you again.

To-day, on that mount we would seek for thy blessing,
O Spirit of Holiness, meet with us there,
Our hearts then will feel, thine high influence possessing
The sweetness of praise and the fervor of prayer.

JAMES EDMESTON.



HUNTERS IN A HOWDAH.

Although the elephant is not a native of Persia, at the present day, there is tolerable evidence that he was once employed in that country both in war and the chase. On an ancient arch, described by Sir R. K. Porter, are representations in bas-relief, of a boar-hunt, in which some of the riders are mounted on horses, and others on elephants, which are plunging on every side through the marshy bushes.

The elephant is invariably employed in India in hunting the tiger. His delicate scent, his strength to make his way through the thickest covers, his sagacity, and especially his great stature, by which the hunter is lifted out of danger, render him peculiarly fitted for such a work. Horses cannot be brought to follow the track of a tiger; and camels are unable to defend themselves if attacked by the ferocious beast. The hunting party is generally numerous; and the sportsmen, seated in their howdahs, fearlessly proceed into the jungle, well-armed for the expected combat.

PERSEVERANCE IN DIFFICULTIES.

We select the following from the delightful pages of "the Pursuit of Knowledge under Difficulties," published by the Society for the Diffusion of Use-

ful Knowledge, as "a most extraordinary instance of literary industry and perseverance;" and to urge upon our young friends the importance of never giving way to trifles, either in their literary pursuits, or in the acquisition of any branch of science or art, to which their taste might lead them.

The Rev. William Davy, A. B. was born in 1743, near Chudleigh in Devonshire, England, where his father resided on a small farm, his own freehold. From a very early age he gave proofs of a mechanical genius, and when only eight years old, he cut out with a knife and put together the parts of a small mill, after the model of one that was then building in the neighborhood, the progress made in constructing which he used to observe narrowly every day, while he proceeded with equal regularity in the completion of his own little work. When the large mill was finished, it was found not to work exactly as it ought to have done, and the defect at first eluded the detection even of the builder. It is said, that while they were endeavoring to ascertain what was wrong, the young self-taught architect made his appearance, and observing that his mill went perfectly well, pointed out after an examination of a few minutes, both the defect and the remedy.

Being intended for the Church, he was placed at the Exeter Grammar School; and here he distinguished himself by his proficiency in classical learning, while he still retained his early attachment to mechanical pursuits, and exercised his talents in the construction of several curious and ingenious articles. At the age of eighteen he entered at Oxford where he took the degree of A. B. at the usual time. It was during his residence at the University that he conceived the idea of compiling a system of divinity, to consist of selections from the best writers, and began to collect, in a common place book, such passages as he thought would suit his purpose. On leaving college, he was ordained to the curacy of Moreton, in the diocese of Exeter, and not long after he removed to the adjoining curacy of Lustleigh; with a salary of forty pounds a year. In the year 1786, he published, by subscription, six volumes of sermons by way of introduction to his intended work; but this proved an unfortunate speculation, many of the subscribers forgetting to pay for their copies, and he remained in consequence, indebted to his printer above a hundred pounds. This bad success, however, did not discourage him: he pursued his literary researches and completed the work. But when his manuscript was finished, he found that from its extent, it would cost two thousand pounds to get it printed. In these circumstances, he again contemplated publication by subscription, and issued his proposals accordingly; but the names he collected were too few to induce any bookseller to risk the expense of an impression of the work. Determined not to be defrauded of the honors of authorship, Mr. Davy now resolved to become a printer himself. So, having constructed his own press, and purchased from a printer, at Exeter, a quantity of worn and cast-off types, he commenced operations, having no one to assist him except his female servant, and having of course to perform alternately the offices of compositor and pressman. Yet in this manner did the ingenious and persevering man, sustained by the anticipation of the literary fame awaiting him, proceed until he had printed off forty copies of the first three hundred pages, his press only permitting him to do a single page at a time. Confident that he

had now produced so ample a specimen of the work as would be certain to secure for it the general patronage of the learned, he here suspended his labors for awhile; and having forwarded copies to the Royal Society, the universities, certain of the bishops, and the editors of the principal reviews, waited with eager expectation for the notice and assistance which he conceived himself sure of receiving from some of these quarters. He waited, however, in vain; the looked-for encouragement came not. Still, although thus a second time disappointed, he was not to be driven from his purpose, but returned with unabated courage to his neglected labors. He no doubt thought that posterity would repair the injustice of his contemporaries.

In one respect, however, he determined to alter his plan. His presents to the bishops, critics, and learned bodies, had cost him twenty-six of his forty copies; and for the completion of these, so thankfully received, he naturally enough resolved that he would give himself no farther trouble, but limit the impression of the remainder of the work, so as merely to complete the fourteen copies which he had reserved, in this way saving both his labor and his paper. And he had at last, after thirteen years of unremitting toil, the gratification of bringing his extraordinary undertaking to a conclusion. The book, when finished, the reader will be astonished to learn, extended to no fewer than twenty-six volumes 8vo., of nearly five hundred pages each! In a like spirit of independence he next bound all the fourteen copies with his own hands; after which he proceeded in person to London, and deposited one in each of the principal public libraries there. We may smile at so preposterous a dedication of the labors of a life-time as this; but, at least, the power of extraordinary perseverance was not wanting here, nor the capability of being excited to arduous exertion, and long sustained under it, by those motives that act most strongly upon the noblest natures—the consciousness of honorable pursuit, and a trust in the verdict of posterity. It is true this temper of mind might have been more wisely exercised; and the patience, ingenuity, and toil, which were expended upon a performance of no great use in itself, bestowed upon something better fitted to benefit both the zealous laborer and his fellow-men. Yet this consideration does not entitle us to refuse our admiration to so rare an example of the unwearied and inflexible prosecution of an object, in the absence of all those vulgar encouragements which are generally believed and felt to be so indispensable.

DEATH.

BY MISS CAROLINE BOWLES.

Come not in terrors clad, to claim
An unresisting prey;
Come like an evening shadow Death!
So stealthily! so silently!
And shut mine eyes, and steal my breath:
Then willingly—Oh! willingly
With thee I'll go away.

What need to clutch with iron grasp,
What gentlest touch may take?
What need with aspect dark to scare!
So awfully! so terribly!
The wearied soul would hardly care,—
Called quietly—called tenderly,—
From thy dread power to break!

'Tis not as when thou markest out
The young, the gay, the blest,

The loved, the loving—they who dream
So happily! so hopefully!
Then harsh thy kindest call may seem,
And shrinkingly—reluctantly,
The summoned may obey.

But I have drank enough of life,
(The cup assign'd to me
Dashed with a little sweet at best,
So scantily! so scantily!)
To know full well that all the rest,
More bitterly—more bitterly
Drugged to the last will be.

And I may live to pain some heart
That kindly cares for me,—
To pain, but not to bless. O Death;
Come quietly—come lovingly
And shut mine eyes and steal my breath,
Then willingly—oh! willingly
I'll go away with thee.

TORTOISE-SHELL.

The following singularly barbarous process for obtaining the tortoise-shell is abstracted from an Indian newspaper, called the Singapore Chronicle:—This highly-prized aquatic production, when caught by the Eastern islanders, is suspended over a fire, kindled immediately after its capture, until such time as the effect of the heat loosens the shell to such a degree that it can be removed with the greatest ease. The animal, now stripped and defenceless, is set at liberty, to re-enter its native element. If caught in the ensuing season, or at any subsequent period, it is asserted that the unhappy animal is subjected to a second ordeal of fire, rewarding its capturers this time, however, with a very thin shell. This, if true, shows more policy and skill than tenderness in the method thus adopted by the islanders; it is a questionless proof, too, of tenacity of life in the animal, and must further be accounted a very singular fact in natural history.

THE PASHA.

However familiar this title may be to European ears, its real meaning and derivation are scarcely familiar even to the "erudite few." The word itself is compounded of the Persian "pai shaw," or the shah's foot, and is a standing memorial of the designations which, according to Xenophon, Cyrus bestowed on his officers of state, calling them his feet, hands, eyes, and ears. Those entrusted with domestic affairs were styled "the eyes;" the secret emissary was termed "the ear;" the tax-gatherer "the hands;" the warrior "the foot;" and the judge, as mouth-piece of the law, the "tongue of equity." Of so remote an institution as this is the name of the present Turkish Pashas, who in their several capacities of Governor, General, and Vizier or Minister, are appositely styled the "feet of their master."

Who under pressing temptation to lie, adheres to truth, nor betrays to the profane a sacred trust, has wisdom and virtue.

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Vol. I.



NOVEMBER.

At length it comes among the forest oaks,
With sobbing ebbs, and uproar gathering high;
The scared, hoarse raven on its cradle croaks,
And stockdove flocks in hurried terrors fly,
While the blue hawk hangs o'er them in the sky.—
The hedger hastens from the storm begun,
To seek a shelter that may keep him dry;
And foresters low bent, the wind to shun,
Scarce hear amid the strife the poacher's muttering gun.

The ploughman hears its humming rage begin,
And hies for shelter from his naked toil;
Buttoning his doublet closer to his chin,
He bends and scampers o'er the elting soil,
While clouds above him in wild fury boil,
And winds drive heavily the beating rain;
He turns his back to catch his breath awhile,
Then ekes his speed and faces it again,
To seek the shepherd's hut beside the rushy plain.

The boy, that scareth from the spiry wheat
The melancholy crow—in hurry weaves,
Beneath an ivied tree, his sheltering seat,
Of rushy flags and sedges tied in sheaves,
Or from the field a shock of stubble thieves.
There he doth dithering sit, and entertain
His eyes with marking the storm-driven leaves;
Oft spying nests where he spring eggs had ta'en,
And wishing in his heart 't was summer time again.
CLARE'S Shepherd's Calendar.

In the "Raven's Almanacke for 1609," by Thomas Decker, there is a quaint description "*Of Autumne, or the fall of the leafe*"—the season which

continues into this month—"Autumne, the Barber of the yeare, that sheares bushes, hedges, and trees; the ragged prodigall that consumes al and leaves himself nothing; the arrantest beggar amongst al the four quarters, and the most diseased, as being alwaies troubled with the falling sicknesse; this murderer of the Spring, this thief to Summer, and bad companion to Winter; seemes to come in according to his old custome, when the Sun sits like Justice with a pair of scales in his hand, weying no more houres to the day then he does to the night, as he did before in his vernall progresse, when he rode on a Ram; but this bald-pated Autumnus wil be seen walking up and down groves, meadows, fields, woods, parks and pastures, blasting of fruites, and beating leaves from their trees, when common high-ways shall be strewed with boughes in mockery of Summer and in triumph of her death; and when the doores of Usurers shall be strewed with greene hearbs, to doe honour to poor Brides that have no dowrie (but their honestie) to their marriage: when the world lookes like olde Chaos, and that Plentie is turned into Penurie, and beautie into ugliness: when Men ride (the second time) to Bathe—and when unthriftes fly amongst Hen-sparrowes, yet bring home all the feathers they carried out: Then say that Autumne raignes, then

is the true fall of the leaf, because the world and the year turn over a new leaf."

From these amusing conceits we turn for better thoughts to the following instructive passages by Dr. Drake in his "Evenings in Autumn:"—

No period of the year is better entitled to the appellation of The Season of Philosophic Enthusiasm, than the close of Autumn. There is in the aspect of every thing which surrounds us, as the sun is sinking below the horizon, on a fine evening of October (or November), all that can hush the troubled passions to repose, yet all which, at the same time, is calculated to elevate the mind, and awaken the imagination. The gently agitated and refreshing state of the atmosphere, though at intervals broken in upon by the fitful and protracted moaning of the voiceful wind; the deep brown shadows which are gradually enveloping the many colored woods, and diffusing over the extended landscape a solemn and not unpleasing obscurity; the faint and farewell music of the latest warblers, and the waning splendor of the western sky, almost insensibly dispose the intellectual man to serious and sublime associations. It is then we people the retiring scene with more than earthly forms; it is then we love

to listen to the hollow sigh
Through the half leafless wood that breathes the gale.
For at such hours the shadowy phantom pale
Of seems to fleet before the Poet's eyes;
Strange sounds are heard, and mournful melodies
As of night wanderers who their woes bewail.

Charlotte Smith.

It is scarcely possible not to prostrate ourselves with deep humility before the throne of that Almighty being who wields, directs, and limits the career of an element which, if let loose on this firm globe, would winnow it to dust.

When we behold the birds that wing their way through this immeasurable void, through what vast tracts and undiscovered paths they seek their distant food; with what love and gratitude should we not reflect, that if he in mercy has become their pilot and their guide, how much more will he prove to us a sure and never failing protector.

And when we turn our eyes from earth, its falling leaves and fading aspect, its gathering gloom and treacherous meteors, to that great and glorious vault where burn the steady lamps of heaven, or where, shooting into interminable space, flow streams of inextinguishable lustre, we are almost instinctively reminded, that here our days are numbered, that on this low planet brief is the time the oldest being lives, and that, passing from this transitory state, we are destined to pursue our course in regions of ever-during light, in worlds of never-changing beauty.

CONSTANTINOPLE IN 1831.

FROM THE JOURNAL OF AN OFFICER.

The changes effected both in the dress and manners of the inhabitants of Constantinople, and in the style of the city itself, since I last visited it in 1818, were to me most surprising and unexpected. Certainly the greatest portion of the imposing appearance of the Turks has been lost by the recent reform in their costume, which formerly was rich, elegant, and varied; but under this present Frank or European garb, they have become an ill-dressed, slovenly, nay, even in most cases, a ridiculously mean-looking race. The crimson stuffed cap, surmounted by a blue spread tassel, descends low on

the eyebrows, and how deeply must its enemies sigh after the proud and fanciful turban! The younger and less respectable Turks who have adopted the new costume, put on short round Jackets with upright collars, buttoned to the chin, and, according to the season, wear very loose calico or woollen Cossac trousers. The older and more respectable classes make use of loose long surtout coats, with stiff strait collars; waistcoats, loose trousers, and tie black shoes, complete the dress; and sometimes a dirty white neckcloth is tied uncomfortably about their throats. To conceal, however, this cruel abolition of a beautiful national dress, a military cloth cloak is worn by the Effendis, which conceals the horrors of their present habiliments. So altered are the gentry of the new costume, that I should say their next step would be to turn Christians. The European dress was never intended for a Mohamedan, or even an Asiatic.

It is astonishing the effect dress has on the habits of the human race. Thus the Turks became more dignified and slothful than by nature they were intended to have been, because they could neither manage on foot the arrangement of their heaps of clothes, nor walk with comfort in their slippers. Since the tails of their coats have been clipped, certainly they move about with more activity. The sword is much more rapid in the work of conversion than the tongue. The Sultan uses the former weapon without any remorse; and it must be confessed, after all, that the Turks are a dastardly people, easily intimidated, submissive, and cringing.

This has become apparent since the destruction of the Janisaries. Military costume is the fashionable dress of the day; whilst all copying from the Sultan, wear their beards of the same length as his, and pull their caps equally low over their foreheads. The national color for the army is blue. I never saw a better behaved body of men than the new troops, trained and regimented on the European principle; they are always ready to give assistance to foreigners when required.

The city of Constantinople is much improved by being kept very clean, by the erection of new bazaars, by the embellishment of the old ones, and by the guardianship of a very vigilant police. The streets are now free from all rubbish and offensive objects; no notice is taken of foreigners; and even European females, without the slightest change of costume, may walk through every part unmolested, and almost unobserved.

Last Friday we went to see the Sultan on his weekly visit to a mosque, to hear divine service. It was on the Pera side of the Bosphorus. About five thousand infantry, with a powerful band, were drawn out in one line from the entrance of the place of worship, to receive him. They must have been part of a select corps, since the men were very well dressed, and remarkably good-looking, stout and tall. They handled their arms well, and were steady. We were placed under the veranda of a coffee-house, close to which the Sultan passed. His Majesty was preceded by six led horses, saddled and bridled in the European manner, with richly embroidered shabracks; then came double files of mounted pages, dressed in various colored jackets, and white trousers, officers of the household, aides-de-camp, and other military attendants; and lastly, the favorite Meer Allace, or General of the Guards, Hoosain Pacha. To these succeeded the Sultan, immediately followed by a personal guard of infantry, composed of remarkably fine handsome

young men. He wore the scarlet military cap, embroidered round the sides, and surmounted by a rich gold tassel, the long bullion of which hung like a fringe over its crown. A cloak of sky blue cloth, with strait embroidered collar, almost concealed his under dress, a light cloth jacket, buttoned tight up to the chin, his gold-laced white kerseymere trousers, and boots, with spurs. On his left breast shone a most beautiful diamond star. His sabre and belt were European, as also his saddle and bridle. For a moment I could scarcely place faith in my sight, so changed was this haughty monarch "of the sea and earth" from what I had seen him some years back, moving in the full awfulness of Asiatic majesty. The waving plumes of a multitude of shattars, or running footmen, then screened him from the gaze of his subjects; he was borne on by his horse at a movement almost motionless, his eyes were fixed, countenance pale, gloomy, and most melancholy; and now I beheld the same powerful sovereign decked out in a flippant uniform, very similar to that of a light cavalry officer, with florid complexion, active inquisitive gaze, and beard clipped almost to the chin. I must say, Sultan Mahmood seemed to enjoy his emancipation from all the thraldoms of pomp and ceremony. In about half an hour the Sultan returned, and every part of the procession was managed without the slightest noise or confusion. Though, I imagine, the Sultan must have moments of great uneasiness regarding his personal safety, he does not hesitate to move amongst the crowded streets, or apparently shun occasions when attempts might be made on his life.

Persons who, by a long sojourn in Constantinople, have acquired a considerable and more than superficial knowledge of Turkish affairs, assert, that the late changes and ameliorations, instead of retarding, will accelerate the downfall of the Ottoman Government. The spirit of the people has been broken, and both national and religious feelings humbled and outraged. It is an arduous undertaking for a monarch endowed even with great wisdom and resolution to reform a nation, particularly a nation professing the Mohammedan faith; yet I should say, that much has apparently been effected in Constantinople; and, judging superficially, we would deem it the capital of a prosperous and vigorous government. The public buildings are undergoing general repair, old edifices are removing to be erected anew, and every where there is a certain stir denoting activity. Yet these signs of improvements are only observable in Constantinople, whilst the provinces are oppressed, misruled, and absolutely defenceless. If the system pursued by the Sultan does not produce the results anticipated by many, even to the regeneration of his people, certainly the body of the nation has been relieved from the insolence and lawless habits of the Janisaries; and those predatory bands of horsemen, the Dehlees and Hytees, no longer pillage and desolate the country. Criminals are now with facility seized and punished, and for years the Turkish empire has not been so tranquil, or so secure for foreigners, travellers, or merchants.—*United Service Journal*.

Controversy.—A man who is fond of disputing, will, in time, have few friends to dispute with.

Earning the best getting.—Give a man work, and he will find money.

CHILDHOOD AND HIS VISITERS.

Once on a time when sunny May
Was kissing at the April showers,
I saw fair Childhood hard at play
Upon a bank of blushing flowers;
Happy,—he knew not whence or how;
And smiling,—who could choose but love him?
For not more glad than Childhood's brow,
Was the blue heaven that breathed above him.

Old Time, in most appalling wrath,
That valley's green repose invaded;
The brooks grew dry upon his path,
The birds were mute, the lilies faded;
But Time so swiftly winged his flight
In haste a Grecian tomb to batter,
That Childhood watched his paper kite,
And knew just nothing of the matter.

With curling lip, and glancing eye,
Guilt gazed upon the scene a minute,
But Childhood's glance of purity,
Had such a holy spell within it,
That the dark demon to the air
Spread forth again his baffled pinion,
And hid his envy and despair,
Self tortured, in his own dominion.

Then stepped a gloomy phantom up,
Pale, cypress crowned, Night's awful daughter,
And proffered him a fearful cup,
Full to the brim with water;
Poor Childhood bade her tell her name,
And when the beldame muttered "Sorrow,"
He said—"Don't interrupt my game,
I'll taste it, if I must, to-morrow."

The Muse of Pindus thither came,
And wooed him with the softest numbers
That ever scattered wealth and fame,
Upon a youthful poet's slumbers;
Though sweet the music of the lay,
To Childhood it was all a riddle,
And, "Oh," he cried, "do send away,
That noisy woman with the fiddle."

Then Wisdom stole his bat and ball,
And taught him, with most sage endeavor,
Why bubbles rise and acorns fall,
And why no toy may last for ever;
She talked of all the wondrous laws,
Which Nature's open book discloses,
And Childhood ere she made a pause,
Was fast asleep among the roses.

Sleep on, sleep on!—Oh Manhood's dreams,
Are all of earthly pain or pleasure,
Of Glory's toils, Ambition's schemes,
Of cherished love, or hoarded treasure:
But to the couch where Childhood lies,
A more delicious trance is given,
Lit up by rays from Seraph eyes,
And glimpses of remembered heaven!

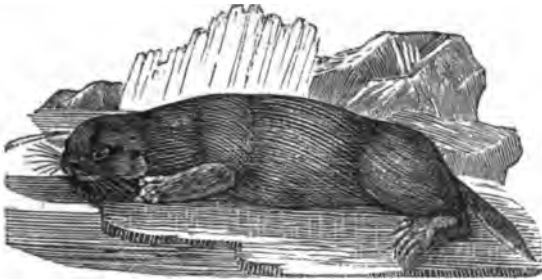
JUST JUDGMENT.

A GOOD JUDGE, AND A GOOD JURY.

It is of most essential importance to the due administration of justice that juries should be sensible of their own dignity; and, when occasion requires, that they should not implicitly and servilely bow to the opinion of any judge, however high he may be held in estimation. An instance of the beneficial result of a jury asserting, in a respectful manner, the privilege of having an opinion of their own, occurred not very long ago.

Two men were indicted for a burglary: after the counsel for the prosecution had opened, the amia-

ble and learned judge who presided, addressing the jury, said, "Gentlemen, there does not appear to me any probability that a case of burglary can be made out against the prisoners, it is, therefore, needless to occupy your time any further." The jury having, however, conferred for a short time, the foreman replied, "With perfect deference to your lordship's opinion, we should rather prefer hearing the evidence." To this his lordship readily assented: the case went on, and the guilt of the prisoners was proved beyond the possibility of a doubt. After the verdict was returned, the learned judge said, "Well, gentlemen of the jury, I will not say that you are better *lawyers* than I am, but I am quite sure that in the present instance you have proved yourselves to be better *judges*."



THE SEA OTTER.

The fur of the sea otter is thick and long, and of a beautiful shining black color, but it is sometimes, though rarely, of a silvery hue; the legs are thick and short; the toes joined by a web; the hind feet are like those of a seal. The total length from the nose to the tail is four feet two inches; the tail is flat, thirteen inches long, and pointed at the extremity. The largest sized animals of this species weigh about eighty pounds.

The sea otter is a remarkably harmless animal, and most affectionately fond of its young; they have been known to pine to death for the loss of their offspring, and even to die on the spot from whence they have been taken away. Before the young can swim, the old animals carry them in their paws, and support them in the water lying upon their backs.

The sea otter can swim in various positions—on its back, sides, and even perpendicularly, and are excessively sportive in the water. It frequents shallow pools which abound in sea weeds, and feeds on crabs, lobsters, and other marine animals. They breed but once a year, and only produce but one at a time, which the female suckles and attends with great assiduity for nearly a year.

Vast numbers of these animals inhabit the coasts of Kamtschatka, and numerous islands contiguous to it, as well as the opposite coasts of America; they are also found on the larger South American islands. Their skins are of great value, and have long formed a considerable article of export from Russia. They dispose of them to the Chinese at the rate of seventy or a hundred rubles each, and receive in return some of their most valuable commodities.

ACCOUNT OF THE BEE-EATER OF SELBORNE, HAMPSHIRE.

We had in this village, more than twenty years ago, an idiot boy, whom I well remember, who, from a child, showed a strong propensity for bees:

they were his food, his amusement, his sole object; and as people of this cast have seldom more than one point in view, so this lad exerted all his few faculties on this one pursuit. In the winter he dozed away his time, within his father's house, by the fire-side, in a kind of torpid state, seldom departing from the chimney-corner; but in the summer he was all alert, and in quest of his game in the fields and on sunny banks. Honey bees, humble bees, and wasps, were his prey, wherever he found them: he had no apprehensions from their stings, but would seize them *nudis manibus*, and at once disarm them of their weapons, and suck their bodies for the sake of their honey-bags. Sometimes he would fill his bosom between his shirt and his skin with a number of these captives; and sometimes would confine them in bottles. He was a very *merops apiaster*, or bee-bird, and very injurious to men that kept bees; for he would slide into their bee-gardens, and, sitting down before the stools, would rap with his finger on the hives, and so take the bees as they came out. He has been known to overturn hives for the sake of honey, of which he was passionately fond.

Where metheglin was making, he would linger round the tubs and vessels, begging a draught of what he called *bee-wine*. As he ran about, he used to make a humming noise with his lips, resembling the buzzing of bees. This lad was lean and sallow, and of a cadaverous complexion; and, except in his favorite pursuit, in which he was wonderfully adroit, discovered no manner of understanding. Had his capacity been better, and directed to the same object, he had perhaps abated much of our wonder at the feats of a more modern exhibitor of bees; and we may justly say of him now,

"Thou,
Had thy presiding star propitious shone,
Shouldst *Wildman* be."

When a tall youth, he was removed from hence to a distant village, where he died, as I understand, before he arrived at manhood.—*Rev. Gilbert White.*

Bilboquet.—In 1585, Henry III. of France diverted himself, while passing through the streets of Paris, by playing with a "bilboquet," a cup and ball. The dukes d'Epemon and de Joyeuse accompanied him in his childish frolic, which, by this example, became so general, that gentlemen, pages, lackeys, and all sorts of people, great and small, made the management of the "bilboquet" a serious and perpetual study. The same king traversed his capital with a basket hanging by a girdle from his neck, out of which peeped the heads of half a dozen puppies.

A Soldier's Age.—Napoleon, in his Italian successes, took a Hungarian battalion prisoners. The colonel, an old man, complained bitterly of the French mode of fighting—by rapid and desultory attacks, on the flank, the rear, the lines of communication, &c., concluding by saying, "that he fought in the army of Maria Theresa."

"You must be *old*!" said Napoleon.

"Yes, I am either sixty or seventy."

"Why, colonel, you have certainly lived long enough to know how to count years a little more closely?"

"General," said the Hungarian, "I reckon my money, my shirts, and my horses; but as for my years, I know that nobody will want to steal them, and that I shall never lose one of them!"

Gardens in Ships. To sow in the temperate zone, and reap between the tropics, is a somewhat singular thing. Yet it is constantly done; for our great East India ships, in imitation of the Dutch, who first introduced the practice, have small salad gardens in flat wooden boxes on their poops, where the seed, acted upon by a heat increasing daily, shoots up in a surprisingly rapid manner. In these gardens the number of crops in a year are more numerous than in any spot on earth, for the gardeners, if so minded, can command almost any temperature.



COLUMBUS AND THE EGG.

PEDRO GONZALEZ DE MENDOZA, the Grand Cardinal of Spain, invited Columbus to a banquet, where he assigned him the most honorable place at table, and had him served with the ceremonies which in those punctilious times, were observed towards sovereigns. At this repast is said to have occurred the well known anecdote of the egg. A shallow courtier present, impatient of the honors paid to Columbus, and meanly jealous of him as a foreigner, abruptly asked him whether he thought that, in case he had not discovered the Indies, there were not other men who would have been capable of the enterprise. To this Columbus made no immediate reply, but, taking an egg, invited the company to make it stand upon one end. Every one attempted it, but in vain, whereupon he struck it upon the table so as to break the end, and left it standing on the broken part; illustrating, in this simple manner, that when he had once shown the way to the New World, nothing was easier than to follow it. This anecdote rests on the authority of the Italian historian, Benzoni. It has been condemned as trivial, but the simplicity of the reproof constituted its severity, and was characteristic of the practical sagacity of Columbus. The universal popularity of the anecdote is a proof of its merit.—*Irving's Life of Columbus*.

The celebrated Hogarth published an etching, illustrative of this anecdote. We give a copy of it above.

IRON STEAM-BOATS.

Vessels constructed of sheet-iron have been sometimes tried in England, but it does not appear that any essential advantage was gained by the

change, as the use of metal for wood has never extended beyond the first experiments, except for track-boats on canals, where the lightness of the structure seems to have recommended its adoption in some cases. In warm climates, however, the case is different; the superiority of iron over wood is there evinced in many essential circumstances, and it is so decided, that, in the course of time, it must cause a total revolution in ship-building for these countries. The great changes, from excessive drought to heavy rains, which take place in hot climates, have a powerful effect in destroying the joinings and frame-work of the best built ships, as well as in wasting their timber. Sometimes, during wet seasons, the rains pour down for days together, till the whole decks and frame of the vessel are soaked with moisture; the sun immediately after breaks out with a strong cloudless heat, and the planks, which had been swelled with wet, now shrink from the penetrating drought, till their joints separate from each other, and leave large gaps and seams. During the next heavy shower, perhaps, these give free entrance to rain, and the cabins below are frequently deluged, in such cases, like an open shed. This takes place particularly on the coast of Guinea, but it is felt to a painful extent by all coasting vessels in tropical climates. This, however, is not the only inconvenience: wood, it is well known, is a bad conductor of heat, so that whatever warmth is generated within a wooden vessel, is likely to remain there, and even to increase, within certain limits, so long as the cause continues to operate. The breath of the sailors, therefore, when they sleep below decks, and the heat communicated through the planks by the vertical sun, frequently make the hold of ship in warm cli-

mates so insufferably hot, that it is almost suffocation to remain in it; and though there are contrivances (called windsails) which are used to send down a current of cool air, the heat and effluvia are still injurious to health. The same warmth, however, which is hurtful to mankind, makes the hold of these vessels a favorite shelter for all the noxious vermin of hot climates: scorpions, centipedes, rats, cockroaches, and all abominations, delight in their recesses. Henry Martin, a well known and benevolent chaplain of the East India Company, who made a short passage in one of the native vessels, could compare it to nothing, on this account, but a sepulchre, full of every thing unclean and poisonous. The unpacking of boxes which have been any time on board of such craft is sometimes a work of great danger, and a person has to stand by with a sharp instrument to prick the scorpions to death. The vermin are sometimes killed by introducing a tube from a steam-boiler, and filling the hold (which is well closed down in the meantime) with hot steam; this kills them, and boils them down to a pulp; but the vessel requires much cleaning afterwards. The chief cause of the preference shown by such vermin to the holds of ships, is the heat generated in the confined atmosphere, which the non-conducting properties of their wooden sides do not allow to escape. All this would be avoided by having vessels constructed of iron; that metal is so complete a conductor, that the heat generated within the hold would be transmitted instantly through the sides of the ship, and abstracted by the cool seawater; so that the interior air of the vessel, instead of being kept at a suffocating heat, would never become warmer than the surrounding water. This result is not mere matter of conjecture or speculation; the experiment has been tried in steam-vessels on the Ganges, and found to answer perfectly; and it is also now under trial in the case of the steam-boat which went out with Mr. Lander to explore the river Niger, and its eastern tributary, the Quorra. Accounts have been received from this interesting expedition, which dwell particularly on the advantages derived from the coolness of their metal steam-vessel, and its capability of resisting the effects of a tropical climate. Indeed, had it not been for this invention, it seems likely that the heat generated by steam-engines would have been a powerful bar to the employment of that power in warm climates, at least in vessels coasting along the hot sultry shores and rivers, where the health of European seamen already suffers sufficiently from the temperature. It is singular to consider how science enables mankind to defy the extremes both of heat and cold, and to carry on their enterprises in safety, under the pole or the equator. When ships were sent to make discoveries near the pole, they were lined with non-conductors, cork and double planking, in order to preserve within them all the heat that was generated either by the people or by the necessary fires; while, under the equator, on the other hand, where the heat is in excess, ships are made entirely of a conducting substance, in order to carry away the heat as fast as it is generated.

ICE PALACE.

The annals of the reign of Catherine II., make mention of one ephemeral palace, which, like that of Pandæmonium,

“— Out of the earth, a fabric huge,
Rose like an exhalation;”

and like an exhalation vanished, not leaving a wreck behind. From a true and particular account of this ice palace, drawn up by Kraft, an imperial academician, and published at St. Petersburg the year after its erection, it appears, that seven years before, an ice castle had been built on the river Neva; but the ice bent under the weight of the edifice and of the soldiers who garrisoned it. To avoid a similar defect in the foundation, it was resolved, on the occasion of the marriage of Prince Galitzin, in 1740, to erect a palace of ice on terra firma; and a site was chosen between the imperial winter palace and the admiralty, one of the lords of the bedchamber being appointed to superintend the works. The palace was constructed of blocks of ice, from two to three feet thick, cut out of the winter covering of the Neva; these being properly adjusted, water was poured between them, which acted as cement, consolidating the whole into one immense mass of ice. The length of the edifice was fifty-six feet, its breadth seventeen feet and a half, and its height twenty-one. It was constructed according to the strictest rules of art; and was adorned with a portico, columns, and statues. It consisted of a single story, the front of which was provided with a door and fourteen windows; the frames of the latter, as well as the panes, being all formed of ice. The sides of the doors and of the windows were painted in imitation of green marble. On each side of the door was a dolphin, from the mouths of which, by means of naphtha, volumes of flame were emitted in the evening. Next to them were two mortars, equal to eighty pounders, from which many bombs were thrown, a quarter of a pound of powder being used for each charge. On each side of the mortars stood three cannons, equal to three pounders, mounted upon carriages, and with wheels, which were often used. In the presence of a number of persons attached to the court, a bullet was driven through a board two inches thick, at the distance of sixty paces, by one of these cannons, a quarter of a pound of powder being also used for a charge. The interior of the edifice had no ceiling, and consisted of a lobby and two large apartments, one on each side, which were well furnished, and painted in the most elegant manner, though formed merely of ice. Tables, chairs, statues, looking-glasses, candlesticks, watches, and other ornaments, besides tea-dishes, tumblers, wine-glasses, and even plates with provisions in one apartment, also formed of ice, and painted of their natural colors; while in the other were to be seen a state bed, with curtains, bed, pillows, and bed clothes, two pair of slippers, and two night caps of the same cold material. Behind the cannon, the mortars, and the dolphins, stretched a low balustrade. On each side of the building was a small entrance. Here were pots with flowers and orange trees, partly formed of ice, and partly natural, on which birds sat. Beyond these were erected two icy pyramids. On the right of one of them stood an elephant, which was hollow, and so contrived as to throw out burning naphtha; while a person within it, by means of a tube, imitated the natural cries of the animal. On the left of the other pyramid was seen the never-failing concomitant of all princely dwellings in Russia, a banya, or bath, apparently formed of barks, which is said to have been sometimes heated, and even to have been appropriated to use.

The appearance of the ice palace, it is said, was remarkably splendid when lighted up in the evening with numerous candles. Amusing transparen-

cies were usually suspended in the windows to increase the effect; and the emission of flames by the dolphins and the elephant, all tended to excite greater surprise, while the people beheld the crystalline mass.

Thus, there wanted not, to carry on the parallel between this place and the magical edifice which Milton describes,

"—— Many a row
Of starry lamps and blazing cressets, fed
With naphtha and asphaltus, yielding light
As from a sky. The hasty multitude
Admiring entered; and the work some praised,
And some the architect."

Crowds of visitors were continually seen around this fantastic and unique construction, which remained entire from the beginning of January almost to the middle of March. The glassy fabric then began to melt, and was soon afterwards broken into pieces, and the ruins were conveyed to the imperial ice-cellar. On the wisdom displayed in the construction of this costly emblem of mundane glory, the reader may make his own comment.



WARLIKE INSTRUMENTS OF THE NEW ZEALANDERS.

The only missile weapons of the New Zealanders (except stones, which they merely throw from the hand) are short spears, made of hard wood, or whalebone, and pointed at one extremity. These they are very dexterous, both in darting at a mark, and in receiving or turning aside with the blades of their battle-axes, which are the only shields they use, except the folds of their thick and flowing mats, which they raise on the left arm, and which are tough enough to impede the passage of a spear. They have other spears, however, varying from thirteen or fourteen to thirty feet in length, which they use as lances or bayonets. These, or rather

the shorter sort, are also sometimes called by English writers, Patoos, or Patoo-patoos. Lastly, they often carry an instrument somewhat like a serjeant's halberd, curiously carved, and adorned with bunches of parrot's feathers, tied round the top of it. This they call a Hennee. It is the instrument which is borne by the chief Tetoro in the representation of him prefixed to Captain Cruise's book; and also by Tooi, in our wood-cut, copied from the Missionary Register.

TOOTHACHE.

"When fevers burn and agues freeze us,
Rheumatics gnaw and colicks squeeze us,
Our neighbours sympathize to ease us,

Wi' pitying moan—
But thou the hell o' a' diseases,
They mock our groan."

BURNS.

The toothache is rendered more distressing, if not more acute, by there being no commiseration for the wretchedness it occasions. The belief in this, and a keen recollection of bodily and mental sufferings, have produced the following little narrative:—

Some years ago, a tremendous tooth, with three enormous prongs, confined me to my room, and irritated me to a state little short of distraction. With my head tied up in a bandana handkerchief, both hands on my afflicted jaw, I sat swaying my body to and fro, as if endeavoring to calm a fractious infant; at other times I stamped about like a lunatic, or plunged on my bed like a frog swimming. Being at length reduced to a state of exhaustion, I was anxious to retreat from all intercourse with the world; yet knock after knock at the door continued, as if only to increase my already excessive nervous irritability. Many of the persons I had no desire to see, but some were those interwoven with my professional pursuits, and I was compelled to be at home. I had to account for my disconsolate appearance—to describe my tormenting pangs, till I was weary of speaking upon the subject. To all of my fervid descriptions, I received the cold remark, and the chilling advice, that it was *only* the toothache, and that I had better have it *extracted*. All this time, the salivary glands were pouring their fluids into my mouth, the gastric juices were wasting their powers, and I was in a paroxysm of excruciating anguish. It was astonishing how persons could calmly behold such a complication of miseries. Nothing could be eaten; slops became offensive; the sight of a spoon frightful; and a basin revolting as a perpetual blister. Even the air could not be taken!—it was too much for the petulance of my capricious tooth. On it raged, as if torments were its delight. In all my reading, I never met with any author but Burns who had a proper idea of the toothache. He wished his enemies to have it for a twelvemonth. Oh dear! He must be more or less than man who could endure this. He must despair and perish.

How true it is, that out of evil often some good will spring; for while I was enduring this thumb-screw on my gums—this gout in my jaw—this rack of nerves—this destroyer of brains—amid this desolation I acquired much useful information respecting the toothache. One friend informed me that half the suffering was occasioned by a nervous irritability; for, if I went to a dentist with a determination to have the tooth extracted, the moment I entered the door the tooth would cease to give me pain. He had proved it more than once.

Another friend smiled at my deplorable situation, and laughed at my desire to retain in my mouth such a *thing*, that had ceased to be a tooth; it was

a mere stump, with a carious triplex fang; worse than useless; it was positively injurious. If the case were his, he should give such tenant immediate notice to quit. With a pair of pincers he would serve the ejectment himself, as an empty house was preferable to a bad tenant.

Another friend requested me to be careful in selecting an operator on my tooth, for that he went to a dentist once, under anguish scarcely endurable, to have a large double tooth like mine extracted. He made a round O of his mouth; the operator popped in the instrument, and u-g-h!—a-h!—it slipped. He felt as if a loaded wagon had passed over his head. The dentist apologized, saying, "It was a common occurrence; gentlemen did not mind it much, because the next attempt was always successful."

A gentleman, who had been waiting for me in the parlour was now introduced, who exclaimed:

"My dear friend, I can cure you in ten minutes."

"How? How?" inquired I: "do it in pity."

"Instantly," said he.

"Have you any alum?"

"Yes."

"Bring it, and some common salt."

They were produced; my friend pulverized them, mixed them in equal quantities; then wet a small piece of cotton, causing the mixed powders to adhere, and placed it in my hollow tooth.

"There," said he; "if that do not cure you, I will forfeit my head. You may tell this in Gath, and publish it in the streets of Aschalon; the remedy is infallible."

It was as he predicted. On the introduction of the mixed alum and salt, I experienced a sensation of coldness, which gradually subsided, and with it the torment of the toothache.

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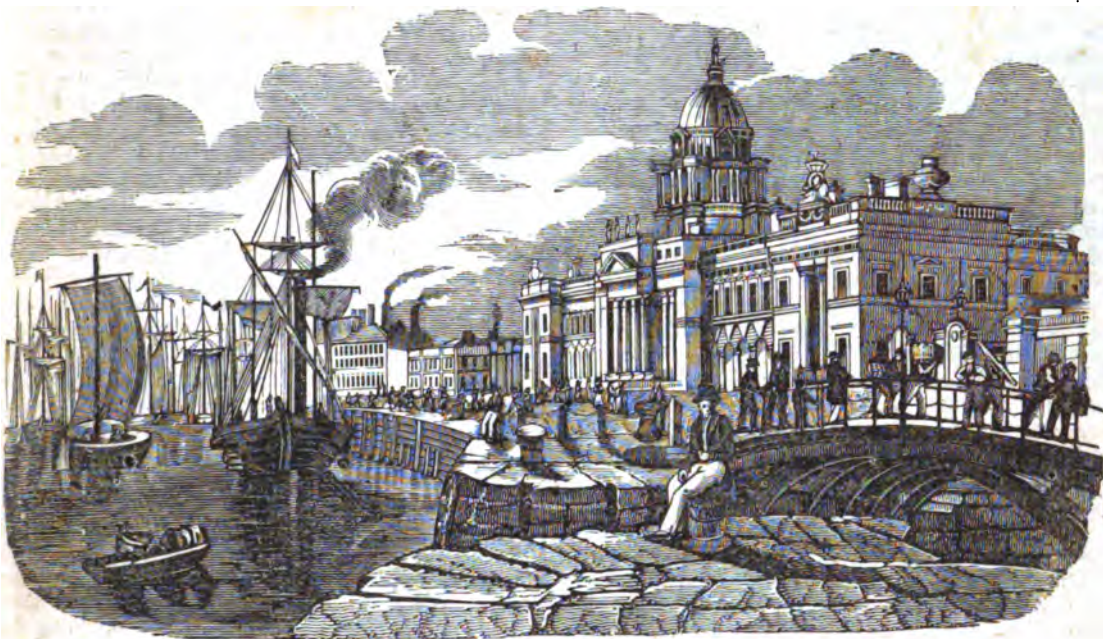
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Vol. I.



VIEW OF THE CITY OF DUBLIN.

The city of Dublin, the metropolis of Ireland, is the capital of the county of the same name. It is about three miles in length, and two in breadth; and is seated at the head of a spacious bay, seven miles from the Irish sea. It has two cathedrals, nineteen parish churches, twenty-seven Roman Catholic chapels, numerous meeting-houses for sects of various denominations, four foreign churches, and a synagogue. Among the principal public buildings are the castle, (the residence of the viceroy,) the National Bank, (formerly the Parliament House,) Trinity College, the Law Courts, the Royal Exchange, the Custom House, the Royal Hospital of Kilmajinham for invalids, the Linen Hall, the Theatre Royal, and the Royal Barracks; also, Carlisle, Essex, and Sarah bridges, three of the seven over the Liffey. The Phoenix Park, at the west end of the city, is a royal enclosure, seven miles in circuit; it includes the villa of the viceroy, the seat of the principal secretary, and a few others; also, the Hibernian schools, a salute battery, and the ammunition magazine. Besides the silk, woollen, and cotton manufactories, carried on in the suburbs, there are other branches of useful traffic in different parts of the metropolis; and its foreign trade is considerable. The harbor is obstructed by two banks of sand, which prevent vessels of large burden from going over the bar; it has a mole nearly four miles in length, with a lighthouse at the extremity, and another on the promontory opposite, called the Hill of Howth; on the northwest side of which is an extensive pier, enclosing a spacious harbor. Three miles below the city is a fortress, called the Pigeon House; and here, also, is a commodious dock. The Liffey divides the city almost

into two equal parts, and has extensive and noble quays on both sides. Two canals pass from the Liffey, named the Royal and the Grand: the latter extends upwards of forty miles to the Barrow navigation, and a branch is carried in a west direction to the Shannon, below Banagher; the former communicates with that great river above Lanesborough, and by a lateral cut, unites with the Boyne.

• HINTS TO TALKERS.

I was once walking along one of the long and empty streets in the west end of London, along with a young friend, who, like myself, generally resided in Edinburgh, but now was just returned from an extensive tour in the United States of America. Suddenly, my companion started, and seemed greatly alarmed, saying, hurriedly, "For God's sake, let us go down this side street!" I accompanied him in the direction he indicated, though I could see nothing in front to alarm him, nor indeed any object at all, except a well-dressed middle-aged looking man, who was advancing from the opposite direction, and was still at a considerable distance. When we had reached a place of safety, as my friend called it, he gave the explanation, which he saw from my looks was required. "That gentleman," said he, "whom we were just now about to meet, is a valetudinarian whom I had the misfortune to encounter in a coffee-house when I was last in London. I do not think he is really very ill: only, like the most of Englishmen, he has perhaps been all his life in the habit of every now and then taking what they call a little medicine, and may have thus, perhaps, made himself ill in spite of himself

However, having fallen into conversation with the old gentleman one evening in the public room at our hotel, he began to give me such a recital of his many and complicated disorders, and of his various attempts to get quit of them, as made me almost as ill as he represented himself to be. I tried many expedients to cut him short, but was at length fairly obliged to take refuge in my bedroom. Nothing else would do. Now, the man would not perhaps be so very tiresome as he is, if it depended solely on what he has to say. But besides the tedium of his endless recital of clinical miseries, there is an unhappy dulness in his very voice, which proves by far the severest part of the affliction. If a sloth, for instance, were a beast of prey, which fastened upon you as a spider does upon a fly, and if it emitted a humming self-satisfied sound while sucking your blood, like a schoolboy at his bread and butter, your circumstances and sensations would, I dare say, exactly resemble mine when this man was pouring his prose stream into my ears. I positively had to go to the opera next night, in order to restore my nerves to their wonted tone. Before that time, however, you may be sure I had taken care to shift my quarters, to prevent the possibility of falling in with the same man again. I did not see him any more, sir, till about a twelvemonth after, when, in turning the corner of a street in New-York, I met him full in the face, and, of course, fell plump into his toils. After the slightest possible recognition, "Oh, by the way," said he, laying, at the same time, a finger like a grappling-iron aboard of my button-hole, "as I was saying when I saw you last, I got no good of Lignum's scorbutic drops. All stuff, sir. The irritation continued as bad as ever"—and so on he went, with his monotonous gummy voice, as if the time and space that intervened since our last rencounter had been as nothing in his estimation. Why, sir, there is a particular jest in Joe Miller, which I always used to think highly improbable, though certainly very droll. A gentleman, riding along a bridge one day, turned about to his servant, and asked if he liked eggs, to which, saith the chronicler, John answered 'Yes.' 'How?' said the gentleman exactly that day twelvemonth, at the same hour, when passing along the same bridge. 'Poached, sir,' replied the man, without a moment's hesitation. I always used to think this a mere fiction; but now, I saw that such an incident might be quite real. There is nothing, sir, on earth like the perseverance of a regular twaddler in the line of his vocation. You may break him off if you will, or if you can; but till you have fairly heard him out, he will never think himself quits with you—he still holds himself in readiness, at whatever part of the world or whatever period of future life he meets you again, to resume the thread of his discourse.

"I listened, sir, for half an hour to the leaden narrative, which still seemed as far from the conclusion as ever. Many an effort I made to give the affair a turn—to throw in a jest, and escape under its cover—but no: every struggle I made served but to fix his finger the more nervously in my cloth. I had no consolation but the apathy of despair, and that I could not resign myself to. However, as good luck would have it, a procession came suddenly upon us, preceded by a band of music, and followed by a sweeping crowd of boys. We were for half a minute drifted along together, he still clinging furiously to the breast of my coat; but at length he parted from me, and, to my infinite

satisfaction, I saw him borne away in a contrary direction from myself—still turning, however, towards me an eager and anxious look, as if he were like to burst with suppressed information respecting the efficacy of Morrison's universal medicines.

"Sir, I met my tormentor once more; but it was on the tops of different stage-coaches, which were passing each other upon the road. He recognised me just as we shot athwart each other: his dull eye kindled, he threw forward his heavy head as if to speak, and instinctively put forth his finger to catch hold of my button. I was safe, however, for this time. We were rapidly taken out of each other's sight. I could only guess, by his look, as he loomed away into the distance, how distressed he was at being still obliged to postpone what he had to say about the medical preparations which he was beginning to discuss in New-York. Since then, I have not once met him till this day; and you may conceive, from what I have told you, how much reason I had to be alarmed at his approach, how much reason to be delighted at my good fortune in eluding him. This pleasure, however, is only temporary. I am destined, I see, to hear out his story: go where I like, it will come upon me somewhere. All I can do is to put off the evil day as long as I can."

If there be any spark of humane feeling in the twaddlers, they will surely be impressed by this striking anecdote of the misery inflicted by one of their fraternity, and will exert themselves as much as possible to correct their fault. Just let every man make a resolution never to speak above fifteen seconds at a time about himself, or any thing that is his, and he will never be otherwise than an agreeable member of the community. There is a respectability in suffering which disposes every man to listen for awhile, with decent attention, to the narratives which sick people are always so ready to give to their friends. But this good and kind feeling should not be abused: there is a limit to our sympathies, beyond which all is hypocrisy; and it would be well if the afflicted would join a just calculation of this extent of general compassion, with their own sense of the importance of their distresses, when they begin to talk upon the subject. If there be this limit to our interest in the sick, how much narrower are the bounds of that which we are naturally inclined to take in the personal affairs and little vanities of able-bodied men! We should, if we really esteem ourselves, be far above all miserable attempts to set ourselves off before a neighbor, by boring him, as he will call it, with our concerns, when he has enough to attend to, of his own.

DREAMS.

Oh! there is a vision of early youth,
And it never comes again;
'T is a vision of light, of life and truth,
That flits across the brain:
And love is the theme of that early dream,
So wild, so warm, so new,
That in all our after years I deem,
Our early dreams we rue.

Oh! there is a dream of maturer years,
More turbulent by far;
'T is a vision of blood, and of woman's tears,
For the theme of that dream is war;
And we toil in the field of danger and death,
And shout in the battle array,
Till we find that Fame is a bodiless breath,
That vanisheth away.

Oh! there is a dream of hoary age,
 'T is a vision of gold in store;
 Of sums noted down in a figured page,
 To be counted o'er and o'er:
 And we fondly trust in our glittering dust,
 As a refuge from grief and pain,
 Till our limbs are laid on that dark bed,
 Where the wealth of the world is vain.

And is it thus, from man's birth to his grave,
 In the path which all are treading?
 Is there nought in that long career to save
 From remorse and self-upbraiding?
 O yes, there 's a dream so pure, so bright,
 That the being to whom it is given,
 Hath bathed in a sea of living light;
 And the theme of that dream is HEAVEN.



EDMUND BURKE.

The private life of Edmund Burke cannot fail to excite a deep interest in those who know and appreciate the exceeding value of the social virtues. While his public life claims our admiration and respect, his private life compels irresistibly our love and our esteem.

The affectionate friendship and regard of men of such sterling value as the Marquis of Rockingham and Lord Charlemont were not lightly nor unworthily bestowed on Burke, and afford no slight testimony of his private worth; and the high estimation which he obtained with Johnson and Parr, Fox, Wyndham, and his numerous intimates, combined with the tone of respectful consideration in which he was invariably spoken of by those politically opposed to him, including Pitt, Wilberforce, Thurlow, and others, serve to place his public character eminently high.

In his intercourse with his own family, however, it was, that the real excellences of his heart shone forth. As a son, his respectful attention and submission to parental authority and advice, even at a period of life when most men either wholly throw off, or at best treat lightly, such restraint, appears, indeed, to have been admirable. As a husband, his attachment to his excellent and accomplished wife was most ardent, and truly she was in every respect highly deserving of it. Her best eulogium was pronounced by him when he declared that amid the troubles and anxieties of his political life he

never failed to find alleviation for all his cares in his home—"they vanished the moment he entered under his own roof." Could higher testimony be borne to the worth of a wife? As a father, his affection for his son appears to have been unbounded, and the poignancy of his sorrow at his death was consequently most intense; indeed, there can be little doubt that it accelerated the termination of his own life; for, though after the first few days of the most extravagant evidence of mental anguish, he appeared to recover some composure, yet long afterwards circumstances apparently trivial would call forth a reiteration of his sorrow. A feeble old horse, which had been a great favorite with his son, and his constant companion in all rural journeyings and sports when both were alike healthful and vigorous, was, in his age, and on the death of his master, turned out to take the run of the park for the remainder of his life, with strict injunctions to the servants that he should neither be ridden nor molested by any one. While walking one day in solitary musing, Mr. Burke perceived this worn out servant approach close up to him, and at length, after some moments spent in viewing his person, followed by seeming recollection and confidence, the poor animal deliberately rested its head upon his bosom. The singularity of the action itself—the remembrance of his deceased son, its late master, who occupied much of his thoughts at all times, and the apparent attachment and almost intelligence of the poor brute, as if it could sympathize with his inward sorrows, rushing at once into his mind, totally overpowered his firmness, and throwing his arms over its neck, he wept long and loudly.

Many things are related of Burke, showing the playful and affectionate intercourse he continued through his whole life to keep up with his brothers and the other members of his family. Richard Burke was a man of considerable talent and wit, and it was his habit to read the newspaper aloud at the breakfast table every morning, making such comments as his whim and drollery suggested. On one occasion, when the paper proved unusually barren of subjects for his genius to exercise itself upon, he turned to his brother's speech in the House of Commons the preceding night, and having read a part of it correctly, he suddenly introduced something of his own of quite an opposite nature to the report, and continued apparently to read with a perfectly grave face, until interrupted by his brother Edmund, with the exclamation—"This is all wrong, Dick; they quite mistake me." A silent assent was nodded by the wag, who, nevertheless, continued his teasing career of invention. "These people," again exclaimed Burke, "are either malicious or foolish, to make me say such things." Richard, however, unmoved by the simple perplexity of his brother at the stupidity of the reporters, went on with something still more outrageous, till finally his gravity gave way at the solema assurance, "I declare to God, Dick, I said nothing of the kind."

He delighted in the society and conversation of children, whom it was his favorite occupation to instruct and amuse, and so successful was he in rivetting their attention and affections, that many boys, who were in the habit of spending their vacations with him, declared when grown to manhood they looked back to the period of their occasional sojourns with him as the happiest and most interesting of their lifetime, and that they derived more pleasure from the amusing stories which Mr. Burke told in his rural walks than from any thing they have

since read. Of this amiable trait, a circumstance, which occurred during one of his visits to Ireland, is very characteristic. Being on a visit at the house of his sister, Mrs. French, near Loughrea, and happening to stroll into the village, on a market-day, in the evening, after an early dinner, his attention was attracted by a group of children, gazing with intense admiration on the exterior of a kind of puppet show, a mode of theatrical exhibition. The anxious curiosity and the lamentations of the youthful group at their inability to gratify it, induced him to bargain with the proprietor for admission of the whole, when some of his friends, coming up at the moment, insisted upon exercising their privilege as his entertainers, in paying the showman. "No, no, my dear friends," said he, "this pleasure must be all my own; perhaps I shall never again have the opportunity of making so many human beings happy." Of the principle of benevolent and kindly feeling which appeared to guide him in the every-day transactions of life, the following may serve as an example. A dispute occurring with the lord of the manor in which his property at Beaconsfield was situated, about the right of ownership in a number of oak trees which stood outside of his park-paling, it was referred, the value being considerable, to the decision of a court of law. So confident was his adversary of his success, that he had directed the bell-ringers of the village to be in readiness the moment the news arrived, to celebrate his victory. The result, however, proved directly contrary to what he expected; and Mr. Burke's servants, thinking their master entitled to the same demonstration of village joy, were proceeding to express it, when, hearing what was going on, he gave peremptory orders to desist. "It is bad enough to quarrel with a neighbor," said he, "without attempting to triumph over him;" and added, when the intention of the other was urged, "what he would have done is of no consequence; I have simply to consider what I ought to do."

We cannot conclude our notices of this great man better than by transcribing the tribute paid to his memory in a Paris journal of the day; it was written by the talented M. Cazales. "Died, at his house, at Beaconsfield, with that simple dignity, that unostentatious magnanimity, so consonant to the tenor of his life and actions, the Right Honorable Edmund Burke. There never was a more beautiful alliance between virtue and talents; all his conceptions were grand—all his sentiments generous. The great leading trait of his character, and that which gave it all its energy and its color was that strong hatred of vice, which is no other than the passionate love of virtue; it breathes in all his writings; it was the guide of all his actions; but even the force of his eloquence was insufficient to transmute it into the weaker or perverted minds of his contemporaries. This has caused much of the miseries of Europe—this has rendered of no effect, towards her salvation, the sublimest talents, the greatest and rarest virtues that the beneficence of Providence ever concentrated in a single character for the benefit of mankind. But Mr. Burke was too superior to the age in which he lived. His prophetic genius only astonished the nation which it ought to have governed."

O'G.

POISONS OF THE ANCIENTS.

At the College of Physicians, London, Sir Henry Hallford lately read a curious paper, in which he

investigated the causes of the death of certain celebrated characters of antiquity, with especial reference to the knowledge of poisons possessed by the ancients. Sylla, he observed, died in consequence of the rupture of an internal abscess, through an excess of rage, which, according to Valerius Maximus, produced a violent vomiting of blood, and death. Crassus, the eminent lawyer, and friend of Cicero, died of pleurisy; and Sir Henry remarked, that the course of treatment for this disorder prescribed by Celsus, and in use at the time, namely, bleeding, cupping, and blistering, was so similar to that pursued at the present day, that nothing was probably left undone that could have saved his valuable life. Pomponius Atticus, whom Cicero loved as a brother, and who was on friendly terms with all parties in the disturbed times in which he lived, was said to have died of a fistula in the loins; it was probably, Sir Henry thinks, a dysentery, ending, as that disorder commonly does, in an affection of the lower bowels. He had recourse to starvation, a very common expedient amongst the Romans, and died in ten days, aged seventy-seven. The latter end of Socrates was brought about by the common mode of despatching persons capitally convicted at Athens, namely, by a narcotic poison; but neither Xenophon nor Plutarch tells us the species of poison. The poisons of this class known to the ancients were aconite, white poppy, hyoscyamus, and hemlock. The black poppy might be the Theban drug. The hyoscyamus was used at Constantinople, and was very likely the nepenthe spoken of by Homer. But most probably the poison administered to Socrates was the same given to other condemned criminals, viz. *cicuta*, hemlock. Juvenal attributes his death to hemlock. Whatever may have been the species of poison, it was one of weak and slow operation; for the executioner told Socrates that if he entered into earnest dispute, it would prevent its effect, and it was sometimes necessary to repeat the dose three or four times. Its operation was gradually to produce insensibility, coldness of the extremities, and death. What was that poison by which Hannibal destroyed himself? It is improbable we shall ever know. Modern chemistry has discovered a variety of subtle poisons that might be introduced into a ring, and, under certain circumstances, destroy life. One drop of prussic acid might produce paralysis, and, if taken into the stomach, would instantly arrest the current of life. But it is not likely that the Carthaginians were acquainted with prussic acid. Lybia most probably produced poisons sufficiently subtle and destructive to accomplish the fatal purpose of Hannibal. As to the report of its being bullock's blood, that, Sir Henry Hallford observed, must be a fable, as well as in the case of the death of Themistocles, for it is well ascertained that the blood of that animal was not poison. An accomplished nobleman had told Sir Henry that he had been present at a bull-fight in Spain, when, after the matador had killed the bull, a person ran up, caught the animal's blood in a goblet, and drank it off, as a popular remedy for consumption. With respect to the poison with which Nero destroyed Britannicus, comparing the account given by Tacitus, with the effects of laurel-water, Sir Henry was disposed to think that this was the identical drug.

Early Hours. Since the introduction of candles, luxury has increased. Our forefathers rose with the lark, and went to bed with the sun.

THE ROUND TOWER OF SWORDS.

The ancient town of Swords, situated in the barony of Coolock, about seven miles from Dublin, though now reduced to an insignificant village, is remarkable for its picturesque features, its ruins, and its historical recollections. Its situation is pleasing and romantic, being placed on the steep banks of a small and rapid river, and though its general appearance indicates but little of prosperity or happiness, its very ruins and decay, give it, at least to the antiquary and the painter, a no common interest.

Like most of the ancient Irish towns, Swords appears to be of ecclesiastical origin. A sumptuous monastery was founded here in the year 512, by the great St. Columba, who appointed St. Finian Lobair, or the leper, as its abbot, and to whom he gave a missal, or copy of the gospels, written by himself. St. Finian died before the close of the sixth century. In course of time this monastery became possessed of considerable wealth, and the town rose into much importance. It contained within its precincts, in addition to St. Columba's church, four other chapels, and nine exterior chapels subservient to the mother church. Hence on the institution of the collegiate church of St. Patrick, it ranked as the first of the thirteen canonries attached to that cathedral by archbishop Comin, and was subsequently known by the appellation of "the golden prebend." There was also a nunnery here, the origin of which is unknown.

To this monastery the bodies of the monarch Brian Boru, and his son Morogh, were conveyed in solemn procession by the monks, after the memorable battle of Clontarf, and after remaining a night, were carried to the abbey of Duleek, and committed to the care of the monks of St. Cianan, by whom they were conveyed to Armagh.

Swords was burnt and plundered frequently, as well by the native princes, as by the Danes, who set the unholy example. By the latter it was reduced to ashes in the years 1012, and 1016, and by the former in the years 1035 and 1135. On this last occasion the aggressor, Conor O'Melaghlin, king of Meath, was slain by the men of Lusk. Its final calamity of this kind occurred in the year 1166.

Here it was that the first Irish army of the Pale assembled on the ninth of November, 1641, preparatory to that frightful civil war which caused such calamities to the country; and here they were defeated and put to the rout by the forces under Sir Charles Coote, on the tenth of January following, when he beat them from their fortifications and killed two hundred of them, without any material loss, except that of Sir Lorenzo Carey, second son of Lord Falkland, who fell in the engagement.

Of the numerous ecclesiastical edifices for which



Swords was anciently distinguished, the only remains now existing are those represented in the prefixed engraving—for the castle, though said to have been the residence of the archbishop of Dublin can hardly be included under this denomination. These consist of a fine and lofty round tower, coeval with the foundation of the original monastery, and the abbey belfrey, a square building of the fourteenth or fifteenth century. The former is seventy-three feet high, fifty-two feet in circumference, and the walls four feet thick. It contained five stories, or floors. Its present entrance which is level with the ground, is of modern construction, as well as the roof and upper story: what appears to have been the original doorway is twenty feet from the ground, and but four feet high. "Respecting the uses of those singular ancient buildings, says a Dublin Journal, we deem it improper to express any opinion, till the Royal Irish Academy shall have announced its decision on the prize essays on this subject, now under its consideration."

These two towers with the adjacent church, form a picturesque and uncommon architectural group; but the church which is of modern erection, having been completed in the year 1818, though imposing in its general appearance, is but a spurious and jejune imitation of the pointed or gothic style of architecture, and such as might have been expected from minds so wanting in good taste and feeling, as those which permitted the removal of the beautiful ruins of the ancient abbey, to erect it on their site. Similar acts of wanton destruction are now unfortunately of daily occurrence, and are any thing but

honorable to their perpetrators, who, though they may regard such remains as vestiges of ancient superstition, should still remember, as Byron says, that

—"Even the faintest relics of a shrine
Of any worship, wake some thoughts divine."

We are told that the inhabitants of Swords feel proud of this pretending, but tasteless structure, and we believe it possible; but if the principles of a refined and educated architectural taste should ever again be generally disseminated in Ireland, they will indulge in a very different feeling. In this country we have yet to learn that elegance of form and correctness of design in ecclesiastical buildings are, in the hands of a judicious and educated architect, quite attainable, even with the limited means usually appropriated to the purpose.—*Dublin Penny Journal*.

QUOTATIONS.

There are a few unfortunate passages in the works of the British classic writers, which exist in a state of perpetual torture and suffering, being taken hold of on all possible occasions by modern authors, and forced to tag out their meaning whenever they are at a loss for an idea out of their own heads. Weak writers—a body who, if numbers signified strength, would be most respectable—could never get on if it were not for quotations; but while it is fun to them, as in the famous case of the boys and frogs, it is death or worse to the gentlemen whose writings are thus pillaged. The reading of Hamlet, for instance, is positively spoiled, in consequence of the ridiculous associations which arise at every other line, in consequence of the uses made of it by the herd of writers whose works are most commonly in our hands. "Alas, poor Yorick!" has lost all its pathos, from its being applied to every funny fellow who has died during the last two centuries, or at least since the days of Sterne; and we now look upon the declaration of the Prince of Denmark, as to the improbability of there ever being another man like his father, as the height of nonsense; seeing that "we ne'er shall look upon his like again" has been said in half the obituary notices of equivocal public characters we can recollect having ever perused. The better plays of Shakspeare are all in pretty much the same predicament. The felicity of that man's diction has been the death of him, and we find him bad because he is so good. We loathe Macbeth, because we never hear in modern literature of a man making wry faces at medicine, but what we are informed that he exclaimed, in a burst of antipathy, "Throw physic to the dogs—I'll none of it!" We detest King Richard, because there is not an ill-mounted sportsman in the country who will not cry "Bring me another horse." Even the fine fancies of the Tempest are become disagreeable to us, since the remark of Trinoulo, that "misery makes us acquainted with strange bed fellows," has been found applicable to so many circumstances. All this, of course, is a fine illustration of the danger in which a man stands from his friends.

Small scribblers in newspapers, contributors of paragraphs about public rejoicings, private festivities, and other local matters, seem to find quotations particularly indispensable, their intelligence being generally so trivial and vapid as to be unfit to stand by itself. In a public rejoicing, the bells are always sure to "ring out a merry peal," and the

crowds of people to be "thick as leaves in Vallambrosa." In the case of a ball, the "light fantastic toe" comes finely in; in that of a dinner, the night invariably "drives on wi' songs and clatter," and the company would take scorn to separate before "the wee short hour ayont the twal." If the undue interference of a magistrate be commented on, then to be sure we have the unhappy Shakspeare dragged in to administer censure—

"Oh man, vain man,
Dressed in a little brief authority, &c."

In fact, these tags of old authors serve as points to the blunt and aimless sentences of the moderns. We, nowadays, have all of the epigram but the sting, and that we are obliged to borrow from our predecessors. Who ever speaks of obscure genius, but he seizes upon some such recondite passage as

"Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air?"

Who ever describes eloquent writing, without bringing in our old friend—

"Thoughts that breathe and words that burn?"

Who ever indicates the variety of styles in any particular writer, or in his own compositions, without going

"From gay to grave, from lively to severe?"

Or who ever writes a sententious account of an unfortunate wretch, but concludes with the pithy remark, that he was only suited to

"Point a moral or adorn a tale?"

And, above all, who ever tells us in print of the rarity of the appearances of any object, animate or inanimate, without taking a vast deal of pains to mention that they were

"Like angels' visits, few and far between?"

Oh, these angels and their visits will surely some day be the death of us.

Can any one think of a teacher, but he must draw upon Thomson for—

"Delightful task!" &c.

or upon Lord Brougham, for his still more celebrated declaration, that "the schoolmaster is abroad"—a phrase now absolutely nauseous from frequency of repetition. When a fine new colony is spoken of, it is of course "a land overflowing with milk and honey," even although bees should not have yet found their way to the country, and cows are so scarce (owing to their having to be carried eight or ten thousand miles,) that they sell at sixty pounds each, and offly can be had by the people of first-rate fortune. When a population is happy in an old country, every man "sits under his own vine and fig-tree," though it is more likely, that, while some enjoy themselves in their dining-rooms beside a coal fire, others frequent the neighboring ale-houses during the first three days of the week, being able to make enough to live upon, by working during the remainder. A slight inapplicability, however, is nothing in a quotation, provided only that it give a kind of sense and expression to a sentence which would otherwise be void of both. Thus, a description of an island may be rather tame, the object being itself perhaps rather so; but if by hook or by crook it can be

"Placed far amid the melancholy main,"

(though possibly only two miles from shore,) then does it catch a grace from another and more poetical mind, and passes off well enough. On the same principle, we will wish for

" — a lodge in some vast wilderness,
Some boundless contiguity of shade;"

though, in reality, a walk in some neighboring plantation, upon which we are forbidden to intrude by men-traps and spring-guns, would satisfy us to our heart's content.

To be serious: Modern English writers act very sillily in introducing so many quotations from the works of former authors. Such a practice indicates not only a want of taste, but a want of the powers of original thinking, or, at the least, a want of confidence in these powers. We are of opinion that every writer should stand on his own merits alone. The sentiments to be expressed ought to be given to the reader in a plain straight-forward manner, without affectation, and in as simple and intelligible a language as possible, without the extrinsic aid of trappings from the productions of others.

Quotations of words and sentiments from the Latin, French, or other foreign tongues, are particularly hateful. The exclamation, "O tempora, O mores," has been applied to every period and state of society during two thousand years, and it is really time it were abandoned. The sin of introducing classic phrases, or of alluding on all occasions to heathen deities, is certainly now much less common than during a former age, when pedantry was frequently accepted as a proof of refinement; still they are too frequently indulged in. The puerile and fictitious transactions of Homer's heroes and heroines are a source of particular annoyance: we feel convinced that if any man would purge our literature of allusions to the "shield of Ajax," he would deserve a reward for his great public service. Surely our own noble and expressive language is sufficient for every useful and ornamental purpose in every kind of composition calculated for popularity. Away, then, with the paltry practice of interlarding English writing either with foreign words, or what are styled classic allusions, which are injurious to good writing, of no value whatever to that which is bad, and in almost every case thoroughly useless.

WEAPONS OF THE NEW ZEALANDERS.

The musket has in a great measure superseded the primitive weapons of the New Zealander, although the New Zealanders are as yet far from being expert in the use of it. By Rutherford's account, they only fire off their guns once, and throw them away as soon as they have got fairly engaged, much as some of the Highland regiments are said formerly to have been in the habit of doing. Captain Cruise, in like manner, states that they use their firelocks very awkwardly, lose an immense deal of time in looking for a rest and taking aim, and after all, seldom hit their object, unless close to it. Muskets, however, are by far more prized and coveted by the New Zealander than any of the other commodities to which his intercourse with the civilized world has given him access. The ships that touch at the country always find it the readiest way of obtaining the supplies they want from the natives, to purchase them with arms or ammunition; and the missionaries, who have declined to traffic in these articles, have often

scarcely been able to procure a single pig by the most tempting price they could offer in another shape



THE PLACE VENDÔME.

Since the time of Louis XVI., while many of the ancient architectural ornaments of Paris have been razed to the ground, many new and splendid edifices have been erected in their places; and almost every year has added something both to the embellishment and extension of the city. The number of convents, immediately before the Revolution, amounted to one hundred and thirty-three; and of the buildings belonging to these establishments the greater number have been either demolished or converted to other purposes. Squares and market-places have been erected on the sites of some; others have been turned into prisons, hospitals, barracks, and schools. Many new streets also have risen on the extensive grounds formerly occupied by these institutions, of which only a small number were re-established after the restoration of the Bourbons.

Since that period, the principal additions which have been made to the extent of the city, have been in what is called the Quartier Poissonnière, to the east of La Chaussée d'Antin, and in the new quarter which has been formed immediately to the west of the Champs Elysées. All these erections, however, are still within the limits assigned to the city in the time of Louis XVI. The wall built in his reign, and still forming the boundary of Paris, has been since surrounded by a road planted with trees, which bears the name of the Boulevard Extérieur, the epithet of Intérieur being given to that formed by Louis XVI. The Boulevard Extérieur was not completed till the close of the reign of Napoleon. To the taste and energy of the Emperor, Paris owes many of its most magnificent embellishments. A much more complete supply of water than the city had ever before possessed — the public granaries in the garden of the Arsenal — the Abattoirs, many new markets, quays, and cemeteries — the Pont d'Austerlitz, the Pont de Jena, the Pont des Arts, and the Pont de la Cité, may be mentioned among the improvements of which he was the author. The Exchange (which, however, was only completed in 1826), the Column of Victory in the Place Vendôme, the Triumphal Arches of the Place du Carrousel, and of the Etoile, (still unfinished), and the splendid new streets of Castiglione, de la

Paix, and Rivoli, immediately to the north of the Tuileries, were either commenced or completed during the period of Napoleon's domination.

POPULAR ERRORS IN MEDICINE.

BY AN EDINBURGH PHYSICIAN.

A very common practice in eating such fruit as cherries is to swallow the stones, with the vague notion that these promote digestion. No error can be more fatally absurd. Many cases have occurred where such practices have been the cause of death, and that of a most excruciating nature. One instance is on record of a lady who died in great agony after years of suffering, and the cause was found to be several large balls found in the intestines, accumulated around clusters of cherry-stones. The husks of gooseberries are often swallowed with the idea that they prevent any bad effects from the fruit. On the contrary, they are the most indigestible substance that can be swallowed, and pass the stomach without any change, although they cause excessive irritation, and not unfrequently inflammation in the bowels.

Many people put great faith in the wholesomeness of eating only of one dish at dinner. They suppose that the mixture of substances prevents easy digestion. They would not eat fish and flesh, fowl and beef, animal food and vegetables. This seems a plausible notion, but daily practice shows its utter absurdity. What dinner sits easier on the stomach than a slice of roast or boiled mutton, and carrots or turnips, and the indispensable potato? What man ever felt the worse of a cut of cod or turbot followed by a beef-steak, or a slice of roast beef and pudding? In short, a variety of wholesome food does not seem incompatible at meals, *if one do not eat too much*—here the error lies.

It is a common practice with bathers, after having walked on a hot day to the seaside, to sit on the cold damp rocks till they cool before going into the water. This is quite erroneous. Never go into the water if over-fatigued, and after profuse and long-continued perspiration, but always prefer plunging in while warm, strong and vigorous, and even with the first drops of perspiration on your brow. There is no fear of sudden transitions from heat to cold being fatal. Many nations run from the hot bath, and plunge naked into the snow. What is to be feared is sudden cold after exhaustion of the body, and while the animal powers are not sufficient to produce a reaction or recovery of the animal heat.

There is a favorite fancy of rendering infants and farther advanced children hardy and strong, by plunging them into cold water. This will certainly not prevent strong infants from growing stronger, but it will and often does kill three children out of every five. Infants always thrive best with moderate warmth and a milk-warm bath. The same rule applies to the clothing of infants and children. No child should have so slight clothing as to make it feel the effects of cold—warm materials, loose and wide-made clothing, and exercise, are all indispensable for the health of little ones. But, above all things, their heads should be kept cool, and generally uncovered.

Many people so laud early rising as would lead one to suppose that sleep was one of those lazy, sluggish, and bad practices, that the sooner the custom was abolished the better. Sleep is as necessa-

ry to man as food, and as some do with one-third of the food that others absolutely require, so five hours' sleep is amply sufficient for one, while another requires seven or eight hours. Some men cannot by any possibility sleep more than four or five hours in the twenty-four; and, therefore, true to the inherent selfishness of human nature, they abuse all who sleep longer. No man should be taunted for sleeping eight hours if he can.

Many people do not eat salt with their food, and the fair sex have a notion that this substance darkens the complexion. Salt seems essential for the health of every human being, more especially in moist climates such as ours. Without salt, the body becomes infected with intestinal worms. The case of a lady is mentioned in a medical journal, who had a natural antipathy to salt, and never used it with her food; the consequence was, she became dreadfully infected with these animals. A punishment once existed in Holland, by which criminals were denied the use of salt; the same consequence followed with these wretched beings. We rather think a prejudice exists with some of giving little or no salt to children. No practice can be more cruel or absurd.

Destructive Kissing.—Cicero speaks of a bronze statue of Hercules which had the features worn away by the frequent osculations of the devout. Several instances of the same kind have occurred in modern times. The face of a figure of the Saviour among the bronze bas reliefs which adorn the *Casto Santa* at Loretto, has in this way been quite kissed away. The foot of the famous statue of St. Peter, in the Vatican, has lost much of its metal by the continual application of the lips and foreheads of votaries; and it has been found necessary to protect the foot of the statue of the Saviour by Michael, in the *Minerva*, from similar injury, by a brass buskin.

Business.—Business, says a celebrated writer, is the salt of life, which not only gives a grateful smack to it, but dries up those crudities that would offend, preserves from putrefaction, and drives off all those blowing flies that would corrupt it. Let a man be sure to drive his business rather than let it drive him. When a man is but once brought to be driven, he becomes a vassal to his affairs. Reason and right give the quickest despatch. All the entanglements that we meet with arise from the irrationality of ourselves or others. With a wise and honest man a business is soon ended, but with a fool and knave there is no conclusion, and seldom even a beginning.

Reply of Diogenes the Cynic.—Diogenes the Cynic being interrogated what benefit he reaped from his barbarous philosophical researches, and his pursuit of wisdom—"If I reap no other benefit," says he, "this alone is sufficient compensation, that I am prepared to meet with equanimity every sort of fortune."

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VOL. I.



UNION BRIDGE, BY-TOWN.

By-Town is situated on the southern bank of the Ottawa, a little below the beautiful falls of the Chaudiere, and opposite the flourishing village of Hull, in Lower Canada. It stands upon a high and bold eminence, surrounding Canal Bay, and occupies both banks of the Canal; that part lying to the east being called the Lower, and that to the west, from a superiority of local elevation, the Upper Town. The streets are laid out with much regularity, and are of a liberal width, that will hereafter contribute to the convenience, salubrity and elegance of the place. The number of houses now built is not far short of one hundred and fifty, most of which are constructed of wood, frequently in a style of neatness and taste, that reflects great credit upon the inhabitants.

On the elevated banks of the bay, the hospital, an extensive stone building, and three stone barracks, stand conspicuous; and nearly on a level with them, and on the eastern side of the bay, is delightfully situated the residence of Colonel By, the commanding royal engineer on that station. From his veranda, (says Bouchette, whose description we have adopted,) the most splendid view is beheld that the magnificent scenery of the Canadas affords. The bold eminence that embosoms Entrance Bay, the broken and wild shores opposite, beyond which are seen a part of the flourishing settlements and the church of Hull, the verdant and picturesque islands between both banks, and occasional canoes, barges, and rafts plying the broad surface of the Grand river, or descending its tu-

multuous stream, are the immediate objects that command the notice of the beholder.

In remoter perspective the eye dwells upon a succession of varied and beautiful bridges, abutting upon precipitous and craggy rocks, and abrupt islands, between which the waters are urged with wonderful agitation and violence. Beyond them, and above their level, the glittering surface of the river is discovered in its descent through the broad and majestic rapid, Des Chênes, until the waters are precipitated in immense volumes over the verge of the rock, forming the falls of the Great and Little Chaudiere. From the abyss into which they are involved with terrific force, revolving columns of mist perpetually ascend in refulgent whiteness, and as they descend in spray beneath a glowing sunshine, frequently form a partial but bright iris, that seems triumphantly to overarch a portion of the bridge. The landscape of the Union Bridges, although not taken exactly from this enchanting spot, may convey some idea of the scope and splendor of the prospect which we have attempted briefly to describe, and partly secure to it that admiration to which it is so richly entitled

POPULAR INFORMATION ON SCIENCE.

GLACIERS.

No person can contemplate the surface of this earth without being impressed with a deep sense of the beauty and grandeur which in almost every country it exhibits. The sunny valley, the extended

plain, the lofty ice-crowned mountain, alike manifest the presence of that power which pervades the whole visible creation. Well has the poet expressed this in the following invocation:—

"Spirit of nature! This is thy fitting temple!
Where not the lightest leaf
That quivers to the passing breeze,
But is instinct with thee!"

With minds thus prepared to be affected by the sublimity of the scenes we must now imagine, let us proceed to examine the origin and nature of those immense masses of ice which are termed glaciers, and which are found on the summits of high mountains. When we ascend from the surface of the earth into the higher regions of the atmosphere, we find that the air becomes rarefied; the sun's rays, which impart warmth, are reflected round us with less intensity, and a sense of coldness is experienced. Saussure, in travelling over the Alps, found that the temperature of the air diminished one degree for every two hundred and eighty-seven feet that he ascended. Dr. Heberden, in journeying over the Azores, found the thermometer fall one degree for every two hundred and forty-five feet. A thermometer, placed on the top of Arthur's Seat, will stand three degrees lower than another kept in a situation on a level with its base. Accordingly, it is found that snow exists in all countries at a certain height above the level of the sea, and this particular height is designated the "snow line." We must now, then, picture to ourselves a lofty chain of mountains—the range of the majestic Alps. When the traveller has ascended one of these mountains, he finds himself surrounded by colossal masses of ice. The snow which falls in these high regions is finer, drier, and more crystalline than that which, falling through a denser atmosphere more charged with vapor, reaches the lower region of the mountains. Most truly has the poet, in contemplating the summit of Mont Blanc, said—

"Mont Blanc yet gleams on high: The power is there—
The still and solemn power of many sights.
* * * Winds contend
Silently there, and heap the snow with breath,
Rapid and strong—but silently."

The snow which thus accumulates on the tops of these mountains, agglomerates in a slow and irregular manner, under the form of grains, into considerable masses, which, during the summer, are exposed to continual changes of temperature. The very keen cold of the night renders the surface of the mass so hard, that the footstep of the traveller makes no impression on it. The intense heat of the succeeding day, however, separates anew the snowy grains, and the water so melted, penetrating into the interstices thus produced, enlarges each grain by congealing round it. This operation proceeding for a considerable period, and on a great scale, at length gives rise to so compact a crystallized mass, that the rays of the sun have not power to melt it; instead of which, they produce an expansion of the air within the glacier, which gives rise to sudden and violent rents at the surface, which are often of considerable magnitude. "One day," says Professor Hugi, who explored the glaciers of the Alps, "being on the inferior glacier of the Aar during an intense heat, at three o'clock, P. M. I heard a very peculiar noise. I advanced rapidly from thirty to forty paces from the side where the noise was heard; I felt the mass of the glacier shake by jolts under my feet, and I soon discovered the cause. A fissure was formed in an instant, the aperture was

elongated from twelve to twenty feet, so that I was unable to follow its formation. Sometimes the operation seemed about to cease, and the mass separated itself very slowly; then, again, the fissure continued to open quickly, and by jolts. Many times I ran forward in time to see the separation taking place under my feet. I followed in this way the formation of the fissure over an extent of almost a quarter of a league, even to the border of the glacier, where it stopped. The fissure opened at first, under the first concussion, about an inch and a half, but afterwards it again contracted, so that its breadth did not attain to more than an inch. The interior of this fissure was rough and unequal; a part of the crystals were broken into two, and others almost untouched formed projections to which there were corresponding hollows in the opposite surface. * * * During the whole of my stay on the inferior glacier of the Aar, we were awaked every night twice or thrice by the subterranean noises which proceeded from the interior of the glacier. Twice the bed itself, which we had dug in the glacier, and which was lined with slates and moss, was violently shaken by jolts analogous to those which I had observed during the formation of the fissure; but the shaking appeared so deeply seated, that we could not for a moment entertain the idea that any rent or crevice would open at the surface." Here we may for a moment pause, to reflect on the awe-inspiring effect of such a scene. It has been well described by Lord Byron, who has put these words into the lips of the gloomy and desperate Manfred:

—"Ye toppling crags of ice!
Ye avalanches, whom a breath draws down
In mountains overwhelming, come and crush me!
I hear ye momentarily, above, beneath,
Crash with a frequent conflict; but ye pass,
And only fall on things that still would live;
On the young flourishing forest, or the hut
And hamlet of the harmless villager."

In connexion with the rifts thus produced in these glaciers, we may quote the following observations and anecdote by Mr. Bohr, who visited the glaciers on one of the high mountains in the interior of Norway:—"It is not," says he, "without terror that you look down into these fearful abysses, however beautiful their azure-colored walls are. In their cold bottoms the lonely traveller has sometimes found his grave. A few years ago, a peasant crossing over from Justedal to Nordfiord, fell into one of these large clefts, which was concealed by the snow. His only companion, a faithful dog, ran down to Justedal, barking and howling as a signal for help. Nobody, however, comprehended his meaning, till the person who had fallen down was at last missed. Several persons then followed the dog up to the glacier, who stopped at the cleft, and gave such signs as put it beyond all doubt that his master had fallen into it. They threw down a rope, and made loud cries, but in vain; the peasant had met his death in the immeasurable gulf. It was only by compulsion that the dog would leave the cleft."

THE GUILLOTINE.

This instrument of judicial punishment in France derives its name from a Dr. Guillotin, one of the most distinguished physicians in Paris, and a person who embraced with ardor the cause of the revolution, and was selected one of the Deputies to the National Assembly. It is supposed by many that Guillotin was one of the first sufferers by the

instrument which bears his name; but it seems this was not the case. The following notice of him has been translated from the *Biographie Universelle*, by a writer in a London newspaper:—

"Guillotin conducted himself with moderation in the National Assembly: he directed his attention there to different objects of public utility, among others, to the plan for the organization of the Faculty of Medicine; and he took a part in the most remarkable resolutions of that body when it became the Constituent Assembly. After it had decided that crimes were *personal*, Guillotin proposed to substitute decapitation for other punishments, on the ground that, in the opinion of Frenchmen, that species of death did not attach infamy to the family of the criminal. The proposition was adopted: its author then pointed out a machine, which had been long known, as proper for the infliction of death, without giving any pain to the sufferer. Men of the best character at that time applauded the humane motives of the philanthropic deputy in selecting this instrument of punishment. Unfortunately for Guillotin, some wags gave his name to the machine, of which he was not the inventor, and which he had only brought into notice. Still more unfortunately, this machine became, in the hands of the ruffians who were masters of France during two years—the duration of which was equivalent to more than two centuries—the instrument of the most horrible vengeance, of the most odious crimes; and Guillotin, who was himself imprisoned, and ready to figure as a victim in the daily scenes of carnage with which our infamous tyrants glutted themselves, had a thousand times to grieve at seeing his name attached to the devastating axe with which the cannibals had armed their executioners. One feels astonished that Guillotin had not solicited permission from the government to relinquish a name which from that time must have been unsupportable to him. After the termination of his political career, Guillotin resumed the functions of a physician, which it would have been perhaps better for his own repose if he had never quitted. He enjoyed, up to his last moments, the esteem of all who knew him. Dr. Guillotin died on the 26th of May, 1814, aged seventy-six."

TREATMENT OF SPRAINS.

No accident occurs perhaps more frequently than that of sprain, wherefore we have thought some information concerning the nature of this accident, and the manner in which it should be treated, will not be unacceptable to our readers. We find in Mr. Liston's *Elements of Surgery* the following observations:—

"Sprain is generally occasioned by a fall, the foot or hand coming awkwardly to the ground, the muscles being at the same time relaxed and unprepared; by over-exertion in lifting heavy weights; by entanglement and twisting of the limb, &c. The ankle is often sprained by what is called 'a false step'; the fore part of the foot comes into contact with an obstacle unexpectedly; the foot is twisted under the limb; the weight of the body is thrown on the apparatus of one side of the joint, and this is in consequence immoderately and unnaturally stretched." Such is one of the most frequent ways in which this accident occurs. Then follows violent pain, and the patient feels sick and faint: the part injured becomes discolored, and a rapid swelling takes

place, owing to the escape of blood from the torn vessels. Afterwards, from the excited action of the vessels, the fluid which lubricates the joint is increased in quantity, and the joint permanently deformed.

"Attentive examination (says the surgeon) is required to guard against mistakes, the existence or non-existence either of displacement or of fracture, must be at once ascertained by determined and perfect manipulation; the parts must be pressed and moved to such an extent as is necessary, notwithstanding the pain thereby occasioned, and notwithstanding the resistance afforded by the patient." This caution is necessary, because one or more of the small bones of the wrist are often displaced; and fracture of the fore arm, and even separation of one bone of the fore arm from the other, are accidents of by no means rare occurrence. "Perhaps," says Mr. Liston, "no injury is more frequently mismanaged by those both out and in the profession. Every old woman thinks she can manage a sprain; most absurd and hurtful measures are resorted to; cold lotions and cold effusions are employed, and at the same time stimulating frictions; probably attempts are made, either by leaching or by puncturing, to extract the effused blood; and many similar follies are committed.

"The proper treatment appears certainly to consist in absolute rest. If there is any displacement, it must be rectified immediately. If there is any fracture, or if there is a tendency to redisplacement after reduction, or if the patient is restless either from folly or insensibility, * * * a splint or splints must be applied, to secure the immobility of the part, at the same time without such compression as may interfere with swelling from effusion (or escape of the watery part of the blood underneath the skin), which is a salutary process, and ought to be encouraged. By absolute rest, the extent of the swelling is limited, and inflammation warded off. Fomentations properly employed afford much relief. * * * The integuments soon become relaxed during the regular use of fomentation. * * * The swelling then abates, and is no longer hard; it pits on pressure, and the skin has a puckered appearance. Then gentle friction becomes advantageous, and uniform support should be afforded by the application of a flannel roller. The longer the limb is disused, the more perfect and rapid is the recovery, provided the rest of the cure is properly conducted. In general, nothing more than what has been stated is required. But if the limb be moved in any way early, then necessity will arise perhaps for bleeding; certainly copious and repeated abstractions of blood by leeches, accompanied with fomentations, and the internal exhibition of antimonials, purgatives, &c. When such is the case, the cure is tedious; the joint long remains swelled and stiff; the patient is lame, and incapable of exertion. Leeching or puncturing at an early period, with the view of allowing extravasated blood to escape, is useless and hurtful. * * * Friction, with stimulating liniments, or even simple friction at an early period, is also hurtful, tending to excite the action of the vessels, and to convert simple swelling into inflammatory. The application of cold at any period is of little use, and ought certainly to be avoided immediately after the injury, as adding to the sufferings of the patient, and interfering with the natural processes that have commenced for the reparation of that injury. In limbs that have remained stiff after severe and mismanaged sprain, the dashing of water, either cold or tepid, has been strongly

recommended: the practice is not ineffectual; the vessels of the surface are excited, perhaps, as by other friction, and perhaps by the reaction which follows the chill. But the limb is apt to become rheumatic, and, on this account, the state of matters will not be improved by this proceeding, unless it be resorted to with proper precautions." Such are the recommendations of this skilful surgeon for the general management of sprains, which are often very troublesome, and require the treatment of a judicious medical practitioner



HALL OF THE JACOBINS.

Of the clubs of Paris the most influential in its day and for a long while afterwards, was that of the Jacobins, so called from its place of meeting, the Convent of the Jacobins in the Rue St. Honoré. The Jacobin Club had been originally established at Versailles, while the National Assembly sat there, by a few of the members of that body; but after it was transferred to Paris along with the legislature, it very soon began to open its doors to persons of much more violent politics than those of which it had at first consisted. It became in fact the nightly rendezvous of many of the most turbulent spirits of the capital, who gradually obtained such a sway over its deliberations that it was abandoned by most of its original members. The people, however, as we have said, continued to act upon the legislature through this, and similar societies, with an immense and daily increasing influence. But they did not long confine themselves merely to this manner of demonstrating their strength.

On the 18th of April, 1791, the King and the rest of the royal family had made preparations to leave the Tuileries for the Palace at St. Cloud; but before they had entered the carriage the tocsin had been sounded from the neighboring church of St. Roch, and a mob had collected in the Place du Carrousel, who continued to vociferate with a determined accent that the king should not leave the capital. His majesty's object in going to St. Cloud, they said, was only that he might have a better opportunity of making his escape from France.

It was in vain that Lafayette and Bailly used every effort to induce them to give way; and even the national guards refused to obey the orders of their commander to disperse the people. The consequence was, that the royal family were obliged to give up their design, and return to their apartments. It was upon this occasion that Lafayette, indignant at the treatment he had received, threw up his command; which he was only prevailed upon to take

back some days afterwards on the earnest solicitations of the municipality, and the solemn promises of the troops themselves that they would in future yield him implicit obedience. As for the king, whatever his intentions may have been up to this time, he now certainly cherished the wish to escape, natural to a prisoner. No favorable opportunity of carrying his purpose into effect presented itself for some weeks; but on the night of the 20th of June, he and the queen, accompanied by the Dauphin and the princess Elizabeth, secretly left the Tuileries. They succeeded in getting out of the city, and took the road towards Montmedy, with the intention of afterwards throwing themselves into the strongly fortified town of Luxembourg, on the frontiers of the Low Countries, which was then in possession of the Emperor. But they were retaken on the third day of their flight at the town of Varennes, in the province of Lorraine, when more than two-thirds of their journey had been performed, and were brought back to Paris. They arrived at the Tuileries on the evening of the 25th; and next morning the Assembly declared the authority of the king to be suspended, and his person under arrest.

Hannah Moore.—This lady died recently, at Clinton, in the 80th year of her age. Few literary persons have had the good fortune to reap so plentiful a harvest of fame during their lives; and yet, we doubt whether, at this moment, more than one or two of her works be known, even by name, to the majority of our readers—the reader being, it is presumed, under five and twenty. Mrs. Hannah Moore was an amiable and accomplished lady, with much practical and worldly wisdom, and very strong religious feelings; her writings were addressed to a large and influential class, and their temporary success was proportionally great; but there is no trace in them of that original mind—or of that subtle development of human feelings, in its weakness and its strength, which can alone insure even the immortality of a life time to a writer who has the fortune, good or ill, of living to eighty. Mrs. Hannah Moore came early into the literary world, ticketed and labeled, and patronized as a prodigy. She was introduced to Garrick, and Burke, and Reynolds, and Johnson, and Horace Walpole, and others, whose good word was fame, and she humored and flattered them, and was humored and flattered in return. Her first literary patron was Garrick, and she wrote tragedies: she was subsequently the bosom friend of Porteus, Bishop of London; and she denounced the theatre in its then state—as if it were different from its ordinary state—as not fit to be countenanced by a Christian people.

"Mrs. Hannah Moore was the daughter of an humble village schoolmaster in the neighborhood of Bristol, who was even unable to provide for her instruction in the ordinary accomplishments of female education; and she was indebted to the kindness of some neighboring ladies for those advantages. Her undoubted talent and exemplary conduct soon interested others in her behalf; and by their assistance she was enabled to open a school, by which, with her literary labors in aid, she in a few years accumulated a very handsome fortune.

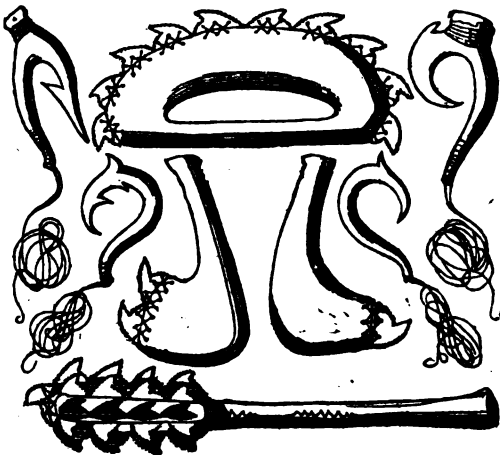
"The only one of her works likely to be met with, except among very young people, is 'Cœlebs in Search of a Wife,' published in 1809, and which went through ten editions in a twelve month, we doubt whether ten copies be now sold in the same time. Her tragedies—*The Inflexible Captive*—*Percy*—*The Fatal Falsehood*—must be considered as utterly forgotten by the public. Early patronized herself, Mrs. Moore loved to play the patron; and in 1785 brought forward a Mrs. Yearsley, a milk woman, at Bristol, a poetical prodigy; her friends had a voice potential—and the public admired; the woman grew insolent upon her success; and the patron had to explain and excuse herself to friends against misrepresentation and abuse; the quarrel put an extinguisher on the prodigy; and except perhaps, Dr. Southey, who has a crop for all corn, and is a native of Bristol, it is more than probable that not a single literary man could be found who had ever read a line of Mrs. Yearsley's poetry. In 1804, Mrs. Moore published 'Hints towards forming the Character of a Young Princess,' written, it was said, expressly at the suggestion of Her late Majesty. Of its merits we know nothing: having no Princesses entrusted to our charge, we never read the book. Mrs. Hannah Moore was singularly, and not undeservedly, successful through life; her talents and her moral conduct deserved to be, but we think she was one of those few literary persons who had their reward while living."



NEW ZEALANDERS FISHING.

One of the chief sources of natural wealth which New Zealand possesses, consists in the abundance and variety of the fish which frequent its coasts. Wherever he went, Captain Cook, in his different visits to the two islands, was amply supplied with this description of food, of which he says, that six or eight men, with hooks and lines, would in some places catch daily enough to serve the whole ship's company. Among the different species which are described as being found, we may mention mackerel, lobsters, crawfish, a sort called by the sailors cole-fish, which Cook says was both larger and finer than any he had seen before, and was, in the opinion of most on board, the highest luxury the sea afforded them; the herring, the flounder, and a fish resembling the salmon. To these may be added, besides many other species of shell-fish, mussels, cockles, and oysters.

The seas in the neighborhood of New Zealand also, we ought not to forget to add, are much frequented by whales, which, besides the value of their blubber, are greatly prized by the natives for the sake of their flesh, which they consider a first rate delicacy. The New Zealanders are extremely expert in fishing. They are also admirable divers, and Rutherford states that they will bring up live fish from the deepest waters, with the greatest certainty. The hooks and other implements for fishery, which they make of bone, are of various forms. The following are specimens:



LITHOGRAPHY.

BY SAMUEL LEITCH, ESQ.

Lithography is the art of printing from stone. It is only of recent invention, and differs very considerably in principle from the art of printing from movable types, wooden blocks, or copper or other plates. The process consists in writing on a particular kind of stone, and from thence working off, by a press, any number of copies, the writing thus standing in relief on the stone like raised letters. The peculiar value of this ingenious art is in the cheapness and ease with which it accomplishes impressions of pictorial delineations or manuscript. The discovery of the lithographic art was made, upwards of thirty years since, by Senefelder, a native of Germany — a country to which the human race is also indebted for the more noble art of printing from types; but since that period very great improvements have been made upon it in Britain.

The history of the origin of lithography is instructive, and affords to the young an additional instance of the triumph of genius over poverty and its attendant disadvantages. Like every new invention, when first attempted to be brought into notice, it met with all the obstacles which ignorance and prejudice could throw in its way; and it was not till after years of laborious perseverance, accompanied with all the evils attendant on very limited means, that the inventor succeeded in establishing his reputation, and gaining for the new art its due degree of admiration.

Senefelder relates, with the greatest candor, that having become an author, and at the same time being so poor that he could not raise the necessary funds for the printing of his work with a view to publication, he endeavored to devise some method by which his object might be attained; and, after much anxious consideration, he resolved on attempting to accomplish it with his own hands. With this view, his attention was first directed to several original and curious modes of stereotype, some of which he considerably matured; and had his circumstances, at this period been such as to admit of his devoting a sufficient time to the perfecting of this first part of his undertaking, it is questionable whether his talents would have ever been forced into that particular line of study, which, in the end, acquired for his name so great a celebrity. The same

remark is applicable to some of the other ingenious attempts which preceded his great discovery. For a time, however, plan succeeded plan, each being abandoned in turn, as new and more plausible theories struck his fancy, and in this way did he persevere, for many months, with various degrees of success, but without the necessary results; and he at last relinquished this course of experiments altogether, as presenting too many obstacles to be overcome by an individual in his circumstances.

Disappointed, but not disheartened, in not having been so successful in his operations as he had anticipated, we next find him attempting to realize his hopes by substituting plates of copper and tin for his metal and composition blocks; but this second course of experiments was attended with little better success than the former; for, after much labor, and numerous trials with the etching needle, and by writing on the copper with different chymical inks of his own composition, this medium was found to be liable to all the objections which had deterred him from prosecuting the stereotype plan. Being, however, still of the opinion that his object was to be accomplished by *art* alone, and having laid aside his copper plates for a time as too expensive, he began to look around for a substitute which would supply their place for all the purposes of practice, and at a much less cost. He was not long in determining this point; for, being aware that certain kinds of stone had often been used for similar purposes, he converted the slab on which he ground his colors into a plate for exercising in writing, and found it answered his expectations completely. Experiments now followed each other in rapid succession, all tending to encourage him in the prosecution of his design; and when at length these stone plates were rendered fit for undergoing the operations of the printing press, he was greatly pleased to find that numerous impressions might be taken on paper, without materially injuring the original.

We shall now at once advert to the time when circumstances conspired to force upon his attention those properties of the art which, on their first unfolding themselves, so astonished and delighted him. "I had (says he) just succeeded in my little laboratory in polishing a stone plate which I intended to cover with etching ground, in order to continue my exercises in writing backwards, when my mother entered the room, and desired me to write her a bill for the washer-woman, who was waiting for the linen. I happened not to have even the smallest slip of paper at hand, as my little stock of paper had been entirely exhausted by taking proof-impressions from the stones; nor was there even a drop of ink in the inkstand. As the matter would not admit of delay, and we had nobody in the house to send for a supply of the deficient materials, I resolved to write the list with my chemical ink, on the stone which I had just polished, and from which I could copy it at leisure."

When about to remove this writing from the stone some time afterwards, the idea struck him, that, by submitting its surface to the action of aquafortis, such an elevation might be given to the writing as would render it suitable, in the same way as wood-engravings, for receiving printing ink. The experiment exceeded his most sanguine hopes, and he lost no time in following up his success with others, all tending to convince him that he had discovered a new and important art.

Thus it will be seen, that, to a very simple occurrence in itself, Senefelder was indebted for the

hint on which hinged all his succeeding improvements.

Having now briefly adverted to some of the leading incidents which ultimately led to the discovery of chemical lithography, we shall next proceed to the notice of such particulars concerning the progress of the new art under the fostering care of its author, as may be thought generally interesting.

Let it not be imagined that Senefelder's difficulties ceased with this discovery: the fact is otherwise; for, in addition to the many obstacles which he had to combat from lacking the necessary funds for the prosecution of his labors, others were not wanting of a nature equally serious, and which were to him the source of long and painful anxiety. Among the rest, it was not a little annoying to know that others were beginning to lay claim to the merit of a new discovery. But these, and other particulars connected with this part of our subject, must form matter for a future article.

THE ITALIAN SLEEP-WALKER.

In the recently-published cheap and elegant edition of Goldsmith's works, forming part of the series of publications entitled "The British Library," we are presented with many pieces not hitherto generally known as the productions of the ingenious author of the *Vicar of Wakefield*. Among others, is the following little sketch, descriptive of a remarkable instance of walking in sleep:—

It has often been a question in the schools, whether it be preferable to be a king by day, and a beggar in our dreams by night; or, inverting the question, a beggar by day, and a monarch while sleeping? It has been usually decided, that the sleeping monarch was the happiest man, since he is supposed to enjoy all his happiness without contamination; while the monarch in reality feels the various inconveniences that attend his station.

However this may be, there are none sure more miserable than those who enjoy neither situation with any degree of comfort, but feel all the inconveniences of want and poverty by day, while they find a repetition of their misery in a dream. Of this kind was the famous Cyrillo Padovano, of whom a long life has been written; a man, if I may so express it, of a double character, who acted a very different part by night from what he professed in the day. Cyrillo was a native of Padua, in Italy, a little brown-complexioned man, and, while awake, remarkable for his simplicity, probity, piety, and candor; but, unfortunately for him, his dreams were of the strongest kind, and seemed to overturn the whole system of waking morality; for he every night walked in his sleep, and, upon such occasions, was a thief, a robber, and a plunderer of the dead.

The first remarkable exploit we are told of Cyrillo, was at the university, where he showed no great marks of learning, though some of assiduity. Upon a certain occasion, his master set him a very long and very difficult exercise, which Cyrillo found it impossible, as he supposed, to execute. Depressed with this opinion, and in certain expectation of being chastised the next day, he went to bed quite dejected and uneasy; but awaking in the morning, to his great surprise he found his exercise, completely and perfectly finished, lying upon his table, and, still more extraordinary, written in his own hand. This information he communicated to his master when he gave up his task, who, being equal-

ly astonished with him, resolved to try him the next day with a longer and a more difficult task, and to watch him at night when he retired to rest. Accordingly, Cyrillo was seen going to bed with great uneasiness, and soon was heard to sleep profoundly: but this did not continue long: for, in about an hour after he lay down, he got up, lighted his candle, and sat down to study, where he completed his work as before.

A mind like Cyrillo's, not naturally very strong, and never at rest, began, when he arrived at manhood, to become gloomy, solicitous, and desponding. In consequence of this turn of thinking, he resolved to leave the world and turn Carthusian, which is the most rigorous of all the religious orders. Formed for a severe and abstemious life, he was here seen to set lessons of piety to the whole convent, and to show that he deserved the approbation as well of his fellows in seclusion as of the whole order. But this good fame did not last long; for it was soon found that Cyrillo walked by night, and, as we are told of the fabled Penelope, undid in his sleep all the good actions for which he had been celebrated by day. The first pranks he played were of a light nature, very little more than running about from chamber to chamber, and talking a little more loosely than became one of his professed piety. As it is against the rules of the fraternity to confine any man by force to his cell, he was permitted in this manner to walk about; and though there was nothing very edifying in his sleeping conversation, yet the convent were content to overlook and pity his infirmities.

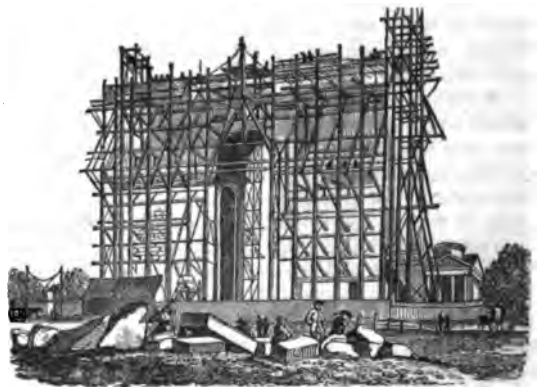
Being carefully observed upon one of these occasions, the following circumstances offered:—One evening, having fallen asleep on his chair in his cell, he continued immovable for about an hour; but then, turning about in the attitude of a listener, he laughed heartily at what he thought he heard spoken; then snapping his fingers, to show he did not value the speaker, he turned towards the next person, and made a sign with his fingers, as if he wanted snuff. Not being supplied, he seemed a little disconcerted; and, pulling out his own box, in which there was nothing, he scraped the inside as if to find some. He next very carefully put up his box again; and, looking round him with great suspicion, buttoned up the place of his frock where he kept it. In this manner he continued for some time immovable; but, without any seeming cause, flew into a most outrageous passion, in which he spared neither oaths nor execrations, which so astonished and scandalized his brother friars, that they left him to execrate alone.

But it had been well if poor Cyrillo went no farther, nor driven his sleeping extravagances into guilt. One night he was perceived going very busily up to the altar, and, in a little beaufet beneath, to rummage with some degree of assiduity. It is supposed that he wished to steal the plate which was usually deposited there, but which had accidentally been sent off the day before to be cleaned. Disappointed in this, he seemed to be extremely enraged; but not caring to return to his cell empty-handed, he claps on one of the official silk vestments; and finding that he could carry still more, he put one or two more over each other, and thus cumbersomely accoutred, he stole off with a look of terror to his cell; there hiding his ill-got finery beneath his mattress, he laid himself down to continue his nap. Those who had watched him during this interval

were willing to see his manner of behaving the morning after.

When Cyrillo awaked, he seemed at first a good deal surprised at the lump in the middle of his bed; and going to examine the cause, was still more astonished at the quantity of vestments that were bundled there. He went among his fellows of the convent, inquired how they came to be placed there; and, learning the manner from them, nothing could exceed his penitence and contrition.

His last and greatest project was considered of a still more heinous nature. A lady, who had long been a benefactress to the convent, happening to die, was desirous of being buried in a cloister, in a vault which she had made for that purpose. It was there that she was laid, adorned with much finery, and a part of her own jewels, of which she had great abundance. The solemnity attending her funeral was magnificent, the expenses great, and the sermon affecting. In all this pomp of grief, none seemed more affected than Cyrillo, or set an example of sincerer mortification. The society considered the deposition of their benefactress among them as a very great honor, and masses in abundance were promised for her safety. But what was the amazement of the whole convent the next day, when they found the vault in which she was deposited broken open, the body mangled, her fingers, on which were some rings, cut off, and all her finery carried away! Every person in the convent was shocked at such barbarity, and Cyrillo was one of the foremost in condemning the sacrilege. However, shortly after, on going to his cell, having occasion to examine under his mattress, he there found that he alone was the guiltless plunderer. The convent was soon made acquainted with his misfortune; and, at the general request of the fraternity, he was removed to another monastery, where the prior had a power, by right, of confining his conventuals. Thus debarred from doing mischief, Cyrillo led the remainder of his life in piety and peace.



ARCH OF L'ETOILE.

The arch of l'Etoile was begun by Napoleon in 1806, to commemorate the victories which had crowned the arms of France under his sovereignty; and was intended to form the most colossal monument of the kind which had ever been erected. Its height was to rise to one hundred and thirty-three feet, the breadth or span being one hundred and thirty-eight, and the thickness sixty-eight feet. Workmen were employed upon the structure for eight years, and immense sums of money were expended upon it.

On the 1st of April, 1810, when the Empress

Maria Louisa made her entry into Paris, a representation of the finished arch was erected of wood, which, being covered over with painted cloth, gave a sufficiently accurate notion of the whole design, and had a magnificent appearance. Notwithstanding Dulaure's anticipations, Charles X had some years ago given orders for prosecuting the construction of this vast monument; and the work was proceeding, we believe, with considerable activity when the events of July occurred,—the intention, however, being to dedicate the memorial to the exploits of the Duc d'Angouleme in Spain, a miserable substitution, it must be acknowledged, for the original design. Above is a cut of it as it appeared with the scaffolding around it immediately after the recent revolution.

MECHANICAL POWER.

Mr. Robert Owen calculates that two hundred arms, with machines, now manufacture as much cotton as twenty millions of arms were able to manufacture without machines forty years ago; and that the cotton now manufactured in the course of one year, in Great Britain, would require, without machines, sixteen millions of workmen with simple wheels. He calculates further, that the quantity of manufactures of all sorts produced by British workmen with the aid of machines is so great, that it would require, without the assistance of machinery, the labor of four hundred millions of workmen.

In the wool manufacture, machines possess an eminent advantage over common wheels. The yarn on thirty or thirty-six spindles is all equally twisted and drawn to the same degree of fineness. The most dexterous spinners cannot twist so equally and so gently twenty slips of yarn from wool of the same quality, as a machine can do twenty thousand.

At one of the cotton mills in Manchester yarn has been spun so fine, as to require 350 hanks to weigh one pound avoirdupois. The perimeter of the common reel being one yard and a half, 80 threads or revolutions would measure 120 yards; and one hank seven times as much, or 840 yards, which multiplied by 350, gives 294,000 yards, or 167 miles and a fraction.

A steam-engine of the ordinary pressure and construction, with a cylinder of thirty inches in diameter, will perform the work of forty horses; and, as it may be made to act without intermission, while horses will not work more than eight hours in the day, it will do the work of one hundred and twenty horses; and as the work of a horse is equal to that of five men, it will perform as much as six hundred men can; while its whole expense is only equal to about half the number of horses for which it is substituted.

The only purpose to which steam-engines were first applied was the raising of water from coal-pits, mines, &c.; but they are now used for many different purposes in which great power is required. Mr. Bolton applied the steam-engine to his apparatus for coining; and, by the help of four boys only, it was capable of striking thirty thousand pieces of money in an hour; the machine itself was made to keep an accurate account of the number struck off.

POETICAL QUID PRO QUO.

A Greek poet frequently offered little compliments to Augustus, with hopes of some small reward. His poems were worthless and unnoticed, but as he

persisted in his adulation, Augustus amused himself with writing an epigram in praise of the poet, and when he received the next customary panegyric, presented his lines to the bard with surprising gravity. The poor man took and read them, and with apparent delight deliberately drew forth two farthings, and gave them to the emperor, saying—"This is not equal to the demands of your situation, sire; but 'tis all I have: if I had more I would give it to you." Augustus could not resist this; he burst into laughter, and made the poet a handsome present.

Pickpockets.—The old robbers, in the "good old times," when purses were carried in the hand or borne at the side, cut them away, and carried them off with the contents, and hence they were called "cut-purses." In the scarce "History of Highwaymen," by Smith, there is a story of a ludicrous private robbery, from "the person" of a man, mistakenly committed by one of these cut-purses.

Angling Anecdote.—In 1822, two young gentlemen of Dumfries, while enjoying the amusement of fishing at Dalawinton loch, having expended their stock of worms, &c., had recourse to the well-known expedient of picking out the eyes of the dead perches, and attaching them to their hooks—a bait which the perch is known to rise at quite as readily as any other. One of the perches caught in this manner struggled so much when taken out of the water, that the unseen, though not unfelt hook had no sooner been loosened from its mouth than it came in contact with one of its eyes, and actually tore it out. The pain occasioned by this accident only made the fish struggle the harder, until at last it fairly slipped through the holder's fingers, and again escaped to its native element. The disappointed fisher, still retaining the eye of the aquatic fugitive, adjusted it on the hook, and again committed his line and cork to the waters. After a very short interval, the latter substance began to bob, when, pulling up the line, he was astonished to find the identical perch that had eluded his grasp a few minutes before, and which literally perished by *swallowing its own eye!*

Daft Sandy Miller.—Formerly, in Alloa House, there was a strange half-witted servant, of the name of Sandy Miller, whose principal business it was to attend to the coal bunkers or receptacles, of which there was one in every flat of that large mansion, for the supply of the fires. Sandy was sometimes negligent, so that the bunkers ran empty before he observed; and on such occasions he generally received such a dreadful scold, either from his master or from the other servants, that his life for the time was miserable. At length, Sandy was one day suddenly taken ill, and given up for lost, when a clergyman was sent for to administer to him the spiritual offices proper to a death-bed. Pfor Sandy listened very attentively to what was said by the minister, and after prayers were over, mentioned, with a self-satisfied sigh, that there was *one thing in particular* which gave him great consolation in this his dying hour. "What may that be, Sandy?" said the clergyman. "Oh, sir," answered the dying man, "*a' the bunkers is filled!*"

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BUFFALO LIGHT HOUSE.

We find in a Buffalo paper a view of the Light House in that town, a copy of which is presented above. The original sketch was furnished by Isaac S. Smith, Esq., the superintendent of the work, who has also given the following account of its construction:

It is situated on the Molehead, or outer end of the Stone Mole, which projects one thousand five hundred feet from the shore, and on the south protects the harbor from the swell and ice of Lake Erie.

The base of the Molehead, (in fifteen feet of water,) is of a pentangular form, about one hundred and sixty feet in its greatest diameter. A little above the surface of the water, it forms three-fourths of a circle, as shown by the print, whence it rises by an inclined plane of heavy stones placed on their edges closely in contact with each other, to the horizontal summit twelve feet wide, which surrounds the light house. Connected with the view of the Molehead, we give a short section of the mole, which in front is a wall of heavy stones, laid in Hydraulic mortar, raised four feet above the water to the tow path or landing, which is twenty-one feet wide, and flagged with very large, thick, flat stones. The wall of the mole laid in mortar, rises perpendicularly twelve feet to the summit; which, like the tow path, is flagged with large flat stone

The foundation of the light house is a mass of solid masonry, in Hydraulic lime, thirty feet in diameter, and nine feet deep. The basement of the light house, (forming an oil vault,) commences on the foundation, with a wall seven feet thick, tapering to four feet in the summit of the mole.

The tower is an octagon constructed of hewn yellowish Limestone, forty-four feet high, twenty feet in diameter at the base, and twelve feet at the top, under the cornice. The walls are four feet thick at the base, tapering to two feet at the top, having at intervals of about six feet, iron bands in the middle of the wall to prevent the possibility of spreading. On the inside is a spiral or geometrical stone staircase, so constructed that each step has its broad end imbedded in the wall, while its outer end constitutes a section of a central column. The floors and deck are of hewn stone, the doors and scuttles of copper, and the window sashes of wrought iron, so that there is not a particle of wood in or about the building except the boom, of necessity made of wood, which sustains the copper electric conductor.

The lighting apparatus is in every respect of the most approved and perfect kind.

The following sailing directions are given for vessels approaching and entering the harbor:

"Whenever vessels find themselves in any position southward of the light house, they must steer

directly for it, but in the night should never approach within eighty yards at any time when it bears northward of east, or northward of west. When it bears east, run for it until within not less than fifty yards, then double the mole head and steer east by south into the harbor, keeping in the middle between the mole and the north pier. A vessel should never be suffered to get so far north in the night, as to bring the light to bear any where southward of east, except when within a quarter of a mile.

"There are sunken rocks about three quarters of a mile about northwest from the light, which can always be avoided in the daytime."

The number of passengers who have left Buffalo for the West in steamboats alone, during the season, taking the average to the close, will be from sixty-five to seventy thousand. The amount of tolls on the canal for the year 1829, was twenty-five thousand eight hundred and seventy-three dollars; for 1833, it was seventy thousand dollars.

CHIVALRY.

The institution of chivalry was most probably formed before the Crusades to the Holy Land, to which some imagine that it gave rise. It exerted a great influence upon society during the 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries.

The people of those ages were much oppressed by the operation of the feudal system. The poorer and weaker classes had no protection against the greater, and abuses were daily committed, which nothing but a combination of gentlemen devoted to the protection of their fellow men could remedy.

When the northern nations had overturned the Roman empire, they established a number of petty governments upon its ruins. Under the arrangement, called the feudal system, each lord had absolute power over his vassals. The spirit of feudal times survived to a very late period, and even up to the time of the revolution in France, near the close of the last century, many of the most cruel of the feudal laws were in operation.

At the time we speak of, it became necessary for those who wished to preserve an appearance of justice, to enter into a combination, binding themselves to preserve inviolate principles of honor and integrity, and to protect the weak from the strong. With such good intentions, chivalry was instituted.

In those lawless days men did not listen to the arguments of justice, unless they were enforced by an appeal to their personal feelings and interests. The fountains of justice were impure, and therefore law was regarded but as another word for fraud. A blow, from a stout lance or a sharp sword, was more convincing to an evil-doer, than a remonstrance from a clergyman, or an appeal from an injured lady. Chivalry, therefore, to meet the exigencies of the times, was a warlike institution.

The crusades which were undertaken with the fire of religious zeal, and the thirst for military glory, opened a wide field for the prowess of the Christian knights. They fought and bled for the sake of restoring the places sanctified by the occurrence of the events of sacred history, from the hands of the unbelievers who held them. With a singular misinterpretation of the wild spirit of our religion, they shed blood in torrents, to advance the progress of Christianity. The cross designed upon their mantles and their shoulders, whence they derived their name, was not less red than the

swords which they sheathed in the bodies of their enemies.

One great object with the Crusaders was the possession of the Holy Sepulchre. And the burden of their warlike songs brought that memorable place to mind,

—The cross, the Holy Sepulchre,
Remember, oh! remember!

They returned from these expeditions, with minds full of religious enthusiasm, and military ardor, and sought at home for the occupation of both. Thus, the union of religion with all their exploits and professions, was indissoluble.

The knights went through preparatory trials, and none but those of stainless reputation were admitted to the order and privileges of chivalry. The most devoted attachment to the fair sex was mingled with their piety and the "love of God and the love of ladies," was protested in the same breath. Various devices and titles were assumed by the knights, and as the institution grew in favor, the utmost splendor found way into it.

The knight-errant led lives checkered by various and singular adventures. When a knight set forth, he was mounted on a gallant steed, being well-armed and generally accompanied by a trusty squire. When darkness and solitude, without the near glimmering of a single taper, from any friendly dwelling, overtook the knight, he flung himself at length upon his cloak, the leaves of the oak, and the spangled expanse of the sky forming his canopy. The horse, unbridled, found forage as he might, and the squire, if of "low degree," grumbled not a little at the inconveniences of the whole arrangement.

They were said to encounter every prodigy. One of the dearest duties of a knight-errant was to enlarge imprisoned damsels, and slay the cruel giants who confined them. The favorite writers of fiction, not content with presenting the dangers which chivalric gentlemen really encountered and overcame, represented captive the ladies as guarded by dragons, spitting fire, or by furious lions, which the heroes, with some slight opposition, invariably overcame.

The extravagances of chivalry were happily ridiculed by Cervantes, a Spanish gentleman of celebrity and courage, in the character of Don Quixotte. The "knight of the woful countenance," accompanied by his worshipful squire, Sancho Panza, performs feats of incredible courage but of a ludicrous nature. The poor gentleman, mistaking a windmill for a giant, whom he attacks, is terribly worsted in the encounter, while he certainly gets the better of the puppets, which he takes for real infidels.

The ridicule of chivalry however, is properly attached to the period when it was upon the decline, and when absurd observances were introduced into the system. Some exaggerations always found place in it, but perhaps no more than the unenlightened spirit of the times was ready to sanction.

A knight not only declared the virtue of the lady whom he loved, to be exalted, but he was ready to maintain by arms, against the world, that she was the fairest woman in the universe.

The knight endeavored as much as possible to soften the horrors of war by politeness, and a kind and courteous demeanor to the wounded and captive. This treatment was no more than just, at a period, when, from the absence of modern military inventions, wars were extremely bloody and ferocious. The knight bound up the wounds of his bleeding foe, frequently gave him his own

horse to carry him, and, satisfied with victory, endeavored to show that he deserved it by his gentleness, as well as his courage.

In a time of peace, to keep alive the spirit of honorable rivalry in warlike actions, jousts or tournaments, were held. At these, the knights fought in the presence of the fair, the grave, the gay, and the great, for the honor, generally, of their respective ladies. The lists, which were the scenes of their encounters, were enclosed and guarded. Heralds proclaimed the names and challenges, minute regulations were made, and any infringement of them severely punished.

Few exhibitions were so brilliant. A tournament, in times when intellectual enjoyments were in the possession only of few, formed a rallying point for the wealth, beauty, and nobility of a city or country. Before the eyes of those who took the deepest interest in their fate, the knights, splendidly armed and mounted, advanced. Amidst the clangor of martial music, they saluted the assembly, and displayed their address in managing their steeds. When the signal was given, the two opponents spurred their horses against each other, fixing their long, heavy lances, in the rest, in a horizontal position.

Sometimes the lances shivered, when new ones were supplied; sometimes the attacks proved fatal, and one of the warriors died in consequence of being flung violently from his horse on the arena. They fought with other weapons besides lances, and, to the dishonor of chivalry, instances occurred, in which fatal affrays took place—the excited knights fought fiercely with battleaxes, and a scene, began with martial sport, ended with bloodshed.

The honors of knighthood were conferred upon a candidate, only after he had gone through numerous satisfactory trials. After having given incontestable evidence of his courage and virtue, after having confessed his sins to the priest, fasted, bathed and heard mass, the honors of knighthood were bestowed upon him, in the presence of an august assembly. He took an oath, consisting of twenty-six articles, swearing among other things, to be a "good, brave, loyal, just, generous, and gentle knight, a champion of the church and clergy, a protection of the ladies, and a redressor of the wrongs of widows and orphans."

Alphonso V., king of Portugal, when he conferred the honor of knighthood upon his son, made him kneel down beside him, and gave him particular instructions, with regard to the duties of a knight. He told him to observe that as the priesthood was instituted for divine service, chivalry was for the maintenance of religion and justice. The true knight, the king said, was a husband to widows, a father to orphans, a protector to the poor. Discharging these duties, he lived honored and courted by the great, and loved by the fair; failing in them, he became infamous and abhorred.

Kings contended bravely in the ranks of chivalry, and the honors bestowed on military prowess were alike an object of ambition to the monarch, and the subject. In England, King Richard I. surnamed Cœur-de-Lion, or the Lion-hearted, was noted for his valor. The sultan Saladin in the East, contended with him in acts of courtesy and courage. During the reigns of King John and Henry III., chivalry rapidly declined in England. It revived, however, under the sway of Edward I.

Edward I. is said to have been one of the most accomplished knights of his age. He excelled his

contemporaries in feats of arms, in which he took the greatest delight. As a proof of his military ardor, it is related that when he was eagerly expected in England, on his father's death, returning from the Holy Land, he heard of a tournament at Chalens in France, which he at once determined to attend, carrying his resolution into effect, and winning great fame.

With a design of subjugating France, Edward wished to call about him a band of warlike spirits, and accordingly held jousts and tournaments, to which he invited the brave and enterprising of the age. His son, the Black Prince, was a noted knight, distinguished for his gallantry in the field, and his courtesy when the battle was "lost and won."

Courtesy was regarded as the chief among chivalric virtues. It even laid the knights open to ridicule, since they preserved a show of politeness in their bloodiest acts, like the noted highwayman who "cocked his pistol with a grace," and uttered, "stand or die! with the politest air imaginable."

There can be little doubt that chivalry did much toward establishing many good principles, which remained when the institution which inspired them had long crumbled into dust. The proudest boast of the heroic knights should have been that sacred reverence of truth, which they rarely failed to entertain.

THE LOST NESTLINGS.

BY MISS GOULD.

"Have you seen my darling nestlings?"

A mother robin cried.

"I cannot, cannot find them,

Though I've sought them far and wide

"I left them well this morning,

When I went to seek their food;

But I found, upon returning,

I'd a nest without a brood.

"O, have you nought to tell me,

That will ease my aching breast,

About my tender offspring

That I left within the nest?

"I have called them in the bushes,

And the rolling stream beside,

Yet they came not to my bidding,

I'm afraid they all have died!"

"I can tell you all about them,"

Said a little wanton boy,

"For 'twas I, that had the pleasure

Your nestlings to destroy.

"But I did not think their mother

Her little ones would miss,

Or even come to hail me

With a wailing sound, like this.

"I did not know your bosom

Was formed to suffer wo,

And to mourn your murdered children,

Or I had not grieved you so.

"I'm sorry that I've taken

The lives I can't restore,

And this regret shall teach me

To do the thing no more.

"I ever shall remember

The plaintive sounds I've heard

Nor kill another nestling

To pain a mother bird."



THE PRINCIPAL FAÇADE OF THE LOUVRE.

The principal façade of the Louvre, commonly called "*The Colonnade of the Louvre*," was finished in 1670, under Louis XIV, by the celebrated architect, Claude Perrault. It is unquestionably a magnificent monument of genius. The edifice now known by the name of "*The Old Louvre*," was begun by Francis I. Of the more ancient palace, which, surrounded by ditches and flanked by massive towers, was in fact a fortress from which the king of France might overawe the Parisians, there are no remains. The exact date of the fortress is very uncertain; and the very name of the palace is as obscure as its origin. Some antiquaries state that the word Louvre is derived from *Lupara*, a place fit for the chase of the wolf; others that it is from the Saxon word *lower* or *lowwear*, which signifies mansion, or castle; and others, that it means *l'œuvre*, the *chef-d'œuvre*, the work *par excellence*.

Before the eastern façade of the Louvre there was anciently a ditch of considerable breadth, into which the waters of the Seine were allowed to flow, and which was crossed at the centre by a draw-bridge leading to a gate. Outside this moat were two tennis-courts, one on each side of the entry to the bridge. Between the southern tennis-court and the Seine stood a building called the Hôtel de Bourbon, the windows of which looked out upon the river. It occupied the ground between the south-eastern corner of the Colonnade of the Louvre and the Rue de Petit Bourbon. The greater part of this building was demolished in 1525; but a chapel and a large gallery which had formed part of it, remained standing till 1660, when they were taken down to permit the erection of the façade which now ornaments that side of the Palace. Down to the commencement of the reign of Louis XIV, the Court were accustomed occasionally to give fêtes and ballets in this Gallery; and here also the celebrated Molière acted with his company in 1658.

The chief historical interest attached to the Louvre is derived from a single event—but that one of the most famous in the French annals. Upon the courts and halls of this royal palace rests the memory of some of the darkest and bloodiest scenes of the terrible day of St. Bartholomew. It was in the chambers of the Louvre that the scheme of the massacre was prepared and arranged; it was hence that the mandates for its commencement were sent forth; much of the carnage took place within the

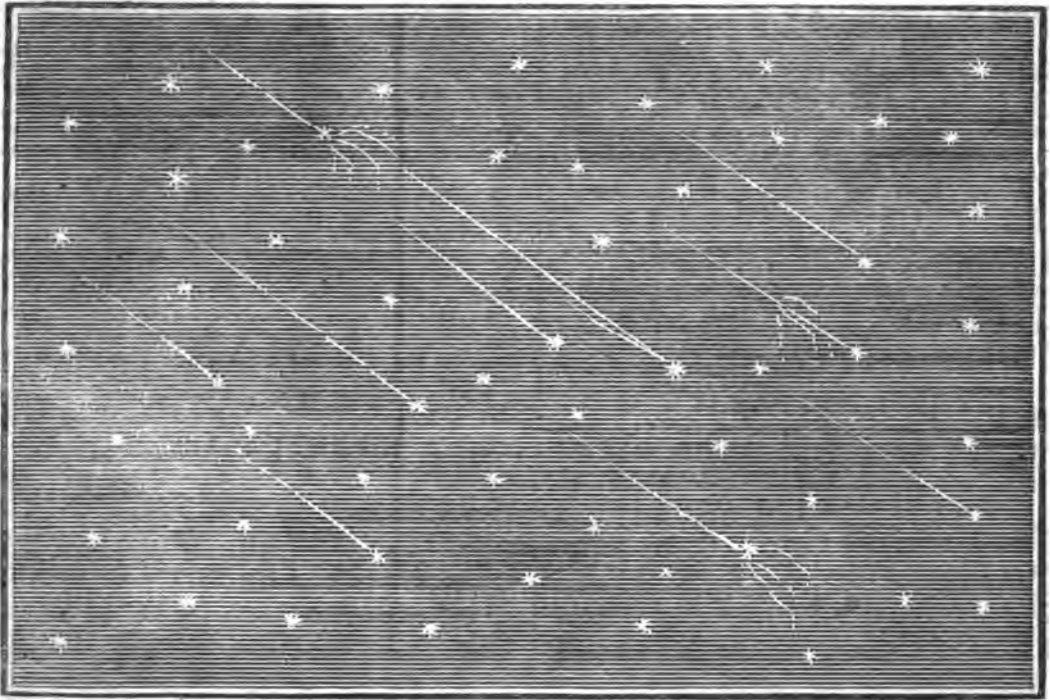
precincts of this building; and the other principal localities of the story are all in its immediate vicinity.

A LEOPARD HUNT.

One evening a large leopard escaped from the menagerie of his Highness the Nabob. He was first seen by a gardener, about 5 o'clock next morning, near Colonel Napier's. He seized the man, and mangled him, so that he died in the course of the day. He afterwards seized three or four other persons, who escaped with severe scratches. In the course of the morning he was traced to a compound in which his Highness's ladies reside. Information was given to the Nabob and the police and a guard was set on the garden. A number of natives assembled, and almost surrounded it, with spears, pikes, bamboos, bayonets fixed on bamboos, &c. and a few with muskets and matchlocks. About half past five P. M., an armed party entered the compound with tomtoms, horns, &c., and commenced beating it. Several European gentlemen were present, but were not permitted to enter. Sometime after, just as the party approached the gate (where a sentry had been placed the whole morning,) and within a few yards of it, the leopard rushed out of a small bush, where he had lain the whole day, knocked down one of the sepoys who was armed only with a spear, and sprung upon another person, whom he seized by the throat and arm, and would have killed him but for the presence of mind of a sepoy, who fired at and wounded the leopard, and then charged him with his bayonet; the leopard was immediately transfixed to the earth with bayonets and spears, till he was put out of misery by a shot from the rifle of one of the European gentlemen, who had entered the compound on the first firing taking place. The beast measured about eight feet.—*Madras Gazette*.

Remarkable Facts.—A million of bank notes placed one above another would form a pile 416 feet in height, which is much higher than St. Paul's, and more than double the height of the monument. Supposing them to be spread out, they would extend over 250,000 square feet, a space equal to the area of Grosvenor Square, London.

In the Nicobar Islands the natives build their vessels, make the sails and cordage, supply them with provisions and necessaries, and provide a cargo of arrack, vinegar, oil, coarse sugar, cocoa nuts, cordage, black paint, and several inferior articles, for foreign markets, entirely from the cocoa-nut tree.



METEORIC PHENOMENA.

On the morning of the 13th Nov. 1833, those who are in the excellent habit of early rising, had an opportunity of witnessing one of the most beautiful displays, that the imagination can conceive. We happened to be among the fortunate on this occasion, and therefore can describe the scene from our own observation.*

We were about five miles southwest of Boston, and a little before five in the morning, on looking out of the window saw several stars shooting downward, leaving behind a long shining train. This excited our attention and calling up a friend who was sleeping in an adjacent room, we walked forth.

The scene was indeed beautiful, and almost fearful. On all sides of us, nearly without cessation, the meteors were streaming through the heavens; sometimes one alone, sometimes two or three or more together. Some of them were small and soon disappeared; others were more brilliant, and had a longer and more glorious career. We were standing among some trees, the strong shadows of which were often thrown upon the ground, as the meteors hurried by.

There was a boy with us whose exclamations were amusing and descriptive. "See there, see, see!" said he, "there goes a whole handful! there's one, cracked all to pieces! Look up there; that one's made a mark on the sky like a piece of chalk!"

It may well be believed that our feelings became deeply interested, and that an exhibition so wonderful, produced emotions amounting to awe. It seemed as if the very stars were leaping from their places, and after a rapid flight, vanishing into air. If philosophy taught us better, still the imagination could not be restrained, and the mind pressed

forward to that predicted hour when the heavenly bodies shall vanish like a scroll, and the glittering vault above, like a vesture, be finally rolled up.

It is perhaps one of the purposes of such natural wonders, to rouse the mind, that might otherwise sleep over the works of God, to a consideration of the great things which he has done and has yet to do. This may be a part of their design, and therefore, it may not be amiss to indulge and cherish the deep and awful impressions which they make. But we should not permit these phenomena to excite superstitious ideas, for they are no doubt as truly natural, and as much in the course of events as the clouds that every day are sweeping unheeded though the sky.

We propose to offer some of the best theories respecting these meteors, that have been formed; but in the first place we shall recount the various observations that have been made upon the recent phenomena in different parts of the country. A correspondent of the Philadelphia National Gazette gives the following description of the appearance of the phenomenon in that city:—

"About a quarter past five o'clock this morning, being awake, a blaze of light filled the window, which in all respects resembled the effect produced by a flash of lightning. I was soon informed that there was an uncommon appearance of 'shooting stars.' In order to obtain a full view of this brilliant scene, I took a position in the open air, and, in conjunction with a person near me, counted the number that appeared in five minutes. The number amounted to eighty at least; but as sometimes several would fall at one time, and frequently in opposite portions of the heavens, it is most probable that many escaped our observation. I cannot say at what time in the morning they began to be displayed in such numbers; but even had they appeared one hour before my first observations, as some were yet visible at half past six o'clock, we may estimate the whole period of their continuance at two and a half hours. During this time, allowing eighty to have appeared in five minutes throughout, the number of descending meteors must have amounted to upwards of two thousand (2160.) In every respect they resembled the phenomena of shooting stars observed when the sky is clear, the stars shining brilliantly, and the wind high. The line of descent was rectilinear, the course from the direction of the zenith towards the horizon, and most generally in a line varying from ten to forty-five degrees from a vertical line. Many fell in a direction downward toward the earth. Much diversity of size and of the degree

*The engraving represents some of the Meteors falling, with their trains. We have seen some engravings, which showed a much larger number, and would give the idea that the whole heavens were illuminated with fireworks. Others may have been favored with a more brilliant display than ourselves; we can only tell of what we saw. The engraving represents the greatest number that we witnessed at any one time, and gives an idea of the manner in which some of them seemed to burst and form little balls of fire, which were an instant after extinguished. Some of the fixed stars and planets are introduced in the cut, though without any attempt at accuracy in their arrangement; they are designed only to give a general idea of the scene.

of brilliancy was observed: while many, in their sudden transit, would exhibit only a train of pale light, but well defined; others, bursting suddenly upon the sight, would blaze splendidly through the whole extent of their course, impressing the eye for a few moments with the appearance of a brilliant line of light. Judging from the blaze of light which filled my window, as above alluded to, I would venture to state that some were so large and brilliant as to diffuse a strong light through the atmosphere and upon the ground and objects thereon. It was impossible to witness these appearances without being strongly impressed with the splendor and sublimity of the scene.

"As the sun approached nearer to his rising, the number of falling meteors which appeared, diminished, though perhaps there was no real diminution of the frequency of their occurrence, as less were seen in consequence of the superior light of the sun. Even, however, about 6 o'clock, I observed one of very uncommon splendor, somewhat southwest of the zenith, and shooting in a direction towards the western point of the horizon. The path which it passed through was visible by a whitish light for nearly sixty seconds of time. Not long after this time, the eye could trace their course no longer, the sun, to which all other lights must yield, having diffused over their paths a higher degree of illumination.

"The sky, during the whole time of this remarkable exhibition, was bright and without a cloud, the wind was chilly and fresh; and the mercury of Fahrenheit's thermometer ranged at about 38 or 40 deg."

At New Haven in Connecticut, these phenomena were witnessed in part by a gentleman of science—Professor Olmstead of Yale College, whose observations do not materially differ from our other accounts.

A correspondent of the New York Commercial Advertiser gives the following description of these meteors:—

"At half past 4 o'clock A. M., I first observed it, and continued to notice it until its termination at 6 o'clock A. M. From a point in the heavens, about fifteen degrees southeasterly from our zenith, the meteors darted to the horizon in every point of the compass. Their paths were described in curved lines, similar to those of the parallels of longitude on an artificial globe.

"They were generally short in their course, resembling much an interrupted line. They ceased to appear when within about ten degrees of the horizon. I did not see a single meteor pass the meteoric pole which I have described, nor one pass in a horizontal direction. Several of them afforded as much light as faint lightning. One in the north-east was heard to explode with a sound like that of the rush of a distant sky rocket. The time from explosion to the hearing was about 20 seconds; which gives a distance of about five miles. It left a serpentine cloud of a bright glowing color, which remained visible for about fifteen or twenty minutes.

"Millions of these Meteors must have been darted in this shower. I was not able to remark a single one whose proximity to me was greater or less than any other—by being intercepted between my vision and any distant object—such as trees, houses, or the high shore of New Jersey west of me. The singularity of this meteoric shower consisted in the countless numbers of the celestial rockets, and more especially in their constantly uniform divergence from the point fifteen degrees southeasterly from our zenith.

"These meteors are supposed to be gaseous, and when inflamed by some cause not explained, appear darting through the heavens, generally in various directions. It is certain that they are generated at a moderate distance from the earth; probably from two to five miles."

A writer in the Rockingham (Va.) Register, states that these phenomena began at about one o'clock, and continued without intermission till daylight.

"It might be literally called a rain of fire. It consisted, to adopt the vulgar denomination, of very numerous shooting stars,—so numerous as to fill the whole atmosphere, and to be resembled by those whose sphere of observation was pretty large, to those flakes of snow which we are accustomed to see as the precursors of a coming snow storm. Thousands of those bright scintillations were to be seen at one glance of the eye. They originated, we believe, in every point of the atmosphere from near the earth's surface, to a very great elevation. None of these meteors proceeded in a direct line towards the earth; but from the point at which they became visible, they moved in an oblique direction towards the earth. In every instance, it is believed, they became extinct, or invisible before they reached the earth. Some of these meteors were large, and emitted a vivid light; others were mere sparks or scintillations; but all so rapid in their motions as to seem a fiery line stretched from the point of detonation to the point of extinction. It has been asserted that this phenomenon was ushered in with a considerable noise: but this

assertion is certainly without foundation: it was neither preceded nor accompanied with noise."

A gentleman who came passenger in the *Hilah* from Liverpool, informed the editors of the New York Journal of Commerce "that on the night of the 12th—13th inst. she was on St. George's Bank, about 300 miles distant from the coast. The meteoric phenomenon was as splendid there as it is described to have been here: and occurred at the same time of the night."

A gentleman who was riding in the stage at St. Lawrence County during the same night, stated "that instead of a shower of meteors, he encountered a fall of snow. He however noticed frequent flashes of bright light, and the stage-driver remarked that it was strange there should be lightning during a snow storm."

A person who witnessed these meteors near Germantown, Pa., says "that it was impossible to count them, but he thinks that from five to twenty were *darted off* in a second. The radiating space was not exactly in the zenith, but a little S. E. of it. Some of the meteors were so bright, as to throw a strong light over the whole sky, and attract my attention even when they were behind me.

"Sometimes a long track of light was left in the sky, and remained for more than a minute. The very great number and rapidity of motion of these meteors, could be compared to a shower of large hail. One of them appeared to be as large as a man's fist, and was of great brilliancy. The stream of light that remained, in some cases ceased to be a straight line, and assumed, first, a snake-like form, and then doubled together.

"The east was ruddy, and the morning star very bright, when I first saw the meteors. They were not always regular in their emission, but there was not, I think, an instant of time in which several were not visible; but it seemed as if there were several great discharges every minute. I watched them till a quarter past six, when the sun was so nearly up, that their light was very faint; but it seemed to me that the number was only apparently diminished by being lost in the light of the morning. A very bright one was seen just at that time."

The Lancaster (Pa.) Examiner furnishes the following account of these phenomena: "A singular and splendid atmospheric phenomenon was visible here and in York county, yesterday morning. From between 12 and 1 o'clock till the dawn of day, the air was filled with innumerable luminous meteors, or *falling stars*, of various sizes, and darting apparently from different heights. The sky was streaked with flashes of meteoric fire, incessantly repeated in every quarter. Hundreds of thousands of brilliant bodies might be seen flying at every moment, all having the same general direction (northerly), sloping in their descent towards the earth at an angle of about 45 deg. and resembling flashes of fire. During the earlier stage of its appearance, the phenomenon was attended by a *crepitating and hurdling sound*; but at the approach of dawn this ceased, and the spectacle exhibited its splendors in silence. The air was calm during the whole period, except an occasional slight breeze. The meteors were most frequent and beautiful at about 4 o'clock, gradually diminishing in number and brilliancy as daylight approached, and ceasing or becoming invisible with the disappearance of the stars.

"A gentleman who travelled in the mail stage from Lewistown to Harrisburg on Tuesday night, and arrived at the latter place yesterday morning at 4 o'clock, says that the phenomenon was not observed by himself, his fellow passengers, or the stage driver, during their nocturnal journey, nor was it spoken of at Harrisburg on his arrival there. It would hence appear not to have extended far to the north of us; and we have yet no account of its having been seen anywhere, except here and in York county—though it probably was."

The Salem Register of Nov. 13th mentions a somewhat singular coincidence connected with these phenomena: "It appears that Captain Hammond of ship *Restitution*, and his crew, who arrived at this port last week from Palermo, have had the extraordinary good fortune of witnessing this wonderful phenomenon *twice within a year*—the ship being in our bay on Wednesday morning, bound in. They saw the Meteors as early as twelve o'clock, and viewed them till daylight. The appearance of the heavens was very similar to that of an occurrence which happened exactly on the same day of the month and year, at Mocha, in the Red Sea, where they went for pepper. Capt. Hammond thus describes the sight at Mocha, in an extract from his journal, written at the time.

"November 13th, 1832. From 1 A. M. until after daylight there was a very unusual phenomenon in the heavens. It appeared like meteors bursting in every direction. The sky at the time clear, the stars and moon bright, with streaks

of light, and thin white clouds interspersed in the sky. On going on shore in the morning, I inquired of the Arabs if they had noticed the above; they said they had been observing it most of the night. I asked them if the like had ever appeared before. The oldest of them replied it had not. I asked them, to what cause they attributed it? The answer was, 'they supposed the Devil was at work,' and they considered it an ill omen, which of course was natural, as they were daily expecting an army to besiege the city. For the last six days it has been blowing a strong gale from the south—hazy weather, and sand in the air.'

"The Register also states as remarkable coincidences, that the only three great meteoric showers on record all took place on the morning of November 13, viz.—In South America, November 13, 1779—at Mocha, November 13, 1832—and in the United States, November 13, 1833."

A correspondent of the Baltimore Gazette, furnishes the following theory respecting the phenomenon: "It has been generally recognised by philosophers, that these meteoric appearances are produced by solid bodies, passing through the higher regions of the atmosphere with prodigious velocity, and producing light by the electricity they excite. This appears to be incontestably proved by the fact of these bodies frequently falling to the surface of the earth—which can only happen, however, when their velocity becomes so much retarded, that the centripetal force of the earth's attraction becomes greater than their own centrifugal force. This retardation is matter of mathematical calculation, and may be occasioned either by the increased resistance of the denser regions of the atmosphere, or by the bodies themselves, by any cause, bursting, and thus offering a greater resistance to the air through which they pass.

"Philosophers, however, do not agree as to the origin of these bodies. Some attribute them to the stones ejected by the volcanoes of the moon to a sufficient distance to come within the earth's attraction; others believe them to be thrown up by our volcanoes to a sufficient height to give them a centrifugal force strong enough to make them revolve round the earth, until, from accidental causes, they fall within its atmosphere, and occasionally to its surface.

"The theory, however, first proposed by Professor Clap, of Yale College, appears to have the most advocates. He supposes that there are a large number of solid substances revolving continually around the earth, probably the product of the destruction of some of the smaller planets, such as Vesta, Juno, Ceres, or Pallas, and forced by accidental combination of power, within the sphere of the earth's attraction. These are entirely invisible, until, as before mentioned, coming within the earth's atmosphere, they give a brilliant light by the vivid electricity they excite."

The following are the speculations of B. Rush McConnell, M. D. of Mauch Chunk, as published in the Mauch Chunk Courier:—

"The above appearances, together with the *ignis fatuus* or jack o' lantern, aurora or northern light, large fire balls, &c. are only so many modifications of electrical agency, a fluid which fills all space, and one doubtless intended, together with the more tremendous and magnificent exertions of its power, in lightning and thunder, to preserve that balance, the disturbance of which would be productive of the most calamitous effects, and should hence be regarded, rather as a manifestation of that beneficent and Almighty power, 'out of whose mouth go burning lamps, and sparks of fire leap out,' Job xii. 19, than a cause of puerile apprehension, or more degrading superstition."

Below is an account of an appearance seen in 1799, by Andrew Ellicott, Esq. It is taken from the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, Vol. VI. pp. 28, 29.

"November 12, 1799, about 3 o'clock A. M., I was called up to see the shooting of the stars (as it is commonly called.) The phenomena was grand and awful; the whole heavens appeared as if illuminated with sky-rockets, which disappeared only by the light of the sun after daybreak. The meteors, which at any one instant of time appeared as numerous as the stars, flew in all possible directions, except from the earth, toward which all inclined more or less; and some of them descended perpendicularly over the vessel we were in, so that I was in constant expectation of their falling among us. We were in lat. 25 deg. N. and S. E. from the Key Largo, near the edge of the Gulf Stream.

"I have since been informed that the above phenomenon extended over a large portion of the West India Islands, and as far north as St. Mary's in lat. 30, 42, where it appeared as brilliant as with us off Cape Florida."

The following account of a meteoric phenomenon, very similar to that of the 13th inst. is taken from the Richmond Va. Gazette, of April 23, 1803. This electrical phenomenon was observed on Wednesday morning last at Richmond and vicinity, in a manner that alarmed many, and astonished

every person who beheld it. From one until three in the morning, those starry meteors seemed to fall from every point in the heavens, in such numbers as to resemble a shower of sky-rockets. Several meteors were accompanied with a train of fire, that illuminated the sky for a considerable distance. One, in particular, appeared to fall from the zenith, of the apparent size of a ball eighteen inches in diameter; that lighted for several seconds the whole hemisphere. During the continuance of this remarkable phenomenon, a hissing noise in the air was plainly heard, and several reports resembling the discharge of a pistol."

In June 1799, Humboldt observed a prodigious number of falling stars between the island of Madeira and the coast of Africa. Thousands of falling stars succeeded each other during four hours. Bonpland relates that there was not a place in the heavens from the beginning of the phenomenon, equal to the extent of three diameters of the moon which was not filled with them.

At the period of our writing, accounts have been received from New Orleans which state that the late phenomena were also witnessed in that city; and the western papers contain full descriptions of the celestial display, as it was seen in that section of the country. The inhabitants of Montreal and other places in Canada, seem either to have not been visited by these meteors, or to have been inattentive to their appearance. In some parts of Maine, likewise, the spectacle was not witnessed.



LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILROAD

This railroad is thirty-seven miles in length, and is the greatest work of the kind in England. Beginning at Liverpool, this road enters an open cutting twenty-two feet deep, with four lines of railway, and leading to the mouth of the great Tunnel, which is twenty-two feet wide and sixteen high. The sides are perpendicular for five feet above the floor, and surmounted by a semi-circular arch. This tunnel is cut through a strata of red rock, blue slate and clay, and is 6750 feet, or above a mile and a quarter in length. The whole extent of this vast cavern is lighted with gas, and the sides and roof are whitewashed, to give a greater effect to the illumination.

The road in the tunnel curves and begins a gentle ascent toward the east. At this extremity, the road leads into a wide area, forty feet below the surface of the ground, cut out of the solid rock, and surmounted on every side by walls and battlements. From this area a small tunnel returns towards Liverpool. Proceeding eastward from the area, the traveller finds himself upon the open road to Manchester, moving upon a perfect level, the road

slightly curved, clear, dry, free from obstruction, and the rails firmly fixed upon massive blocks of stone. After some time it descends very gradually, and passes through a deep cutting, under large stone archways. Beyond this, the road leads through the great rock excavation of Olive Mount, which is seventy feet deep, and only wide enough for two trains of carriages, to pass each other, as represented in the preceding cut.

After leaving this, it approaches the great Roby bank, stretching across a valley two miles in width, and varying from fifteen to forty-five feet in height. Here the traveller finds himself mounted above the tops of the trees, and looks round over a wide expanse of country. After some further curves, and passing several other banks, bridges, and cuts, the road is carried into the city of Manchester.

The track is double. The rails are of wrought iron, laid sometimes on stone, but where the foundation is less firm, upon wood. The whole work cost 820,000 pounds sterling.

ANOTHER YEAR HAS GONE.

When this number comes before our readers, the year 1833, will have passed away and another will have begun its flight. Let us take advantage of the moment, to cast a backward glance, and consider a few things suggested by the occasion.

In the first place, let us remember that a year is gone; a year—a very considerable portion of our life, has passed irrecoverably down into the gulf of by-gone ages. We are so much nearer the goal to which our race tends: we have so much less of that precious time which is allotted for the discharge of the duties assigned to us, and to make up our account for the great reckoning at our entrance into another life. Regarded then as a mere abridgment of our span of years, it is a serious thing and may well awaken deep emotions in our hearts.

But the nature of our emotions, in reflecting upon the lapse of time, must depend upon the manner in which we have used it. Are we better? are we wiser? have we laid up a store of good memories—recollections of good deeds done—of injuries forgiven, of charities performed, of efforts to alleviate distress, to soften grief, to break the force of misfortune and turn aside the edge of disappointment? Have we sought to enlarge the boundaries of human knowledge, to disseminate principles of religion and morality, to set examples of truth, honor and honesty, and to weave mankind together, into one happy family, by the exercise of kind and gentle sympathies?

Have we done these things?—then, the lapse of time is no loss to us; on the contrary, it has resulted in positive gain. The spring, the summer and the autumn, though they have passed away to the husbandman, have left his garners full, and we in like manner have laid up a rich harvest for the future; a harvest, not indeed, of earthly fruits, but of those intellectual and moral stores, which are as essential to the welfare of the spirit within, as corn and wine to the outward man.

But if our year has been spent in mere selfishness;—if we have taken thought only for ourselves; if we have put forth no kindly efforts for the great family around us; if we have indeed gone farther, and indulged in malice, or wantonly injured others in their feelings or in their estate; if we have wounded by falsehood, or led astray by misrepresentation; if we have exerted our influence for the

mere cause of a sect or a party; if we have inculcated by example or precept, either bigotry or illiberality, or in any way used our power to draw others astray from the path of love, charity or truth, then the departed year is an irredeemable loss. It has accumulated the great work we have to do, and has seriously abridged the space in which it must be done. It has doubled our task, while it has diminished our strength, incumbered our limbs, and shortened the day which precedes that night in which no man can work.

Let us draw a serious lesson from these hints. Let us remember that every hour that passes is full of moment: that time spent for ourselves, though it may be necessary, is in some degree like water spilled upon the ground, which cannot be gathered up; while time spent in doing good to others, is like the farmer's seed, sown in good time, and in a good soil, and sure to produce an abundant return. Let us remember too, that time spent in doing ill offices to others—in wicked or wanton injuries to the heart, or the purse of our fellow men, is like putting poison into the cup which we must ourselves drink.

Let us not be misunderstood; we do not mean to say that any man is bound to neglect his own affairs, or consider them secondary to the charity due to others. On the contrary, we esteem an industrious, persevering pursuit of the good things of this life, by honorable and honest means, worthy of praise. We believe the best way to future happiness, is straight forward on the plain turnpike that leads to earthly happiness. But we mean to affirm, and we would fain urge upon all within the reach of our humble influence, the doctrine, that in doing good to those who are travelling the same journey with ourselves, in cheering and helping them on their way is the wisest and surest, and shortest path to our present and permanent peace.

Perseverance.—"I recollect," says Sir Jonah Barrington, "in Queen's County, to have seen a Mr. Clerk, who had been a working carpenter, and when making a bench for the session justices at the Court House, was laughed at for taking peculiar pains in planing and smoothing the seat of it. He smiling observed, that he did so to make it easy for himself, as he was resolved he would never die till he had a right to sit thereupon; and he kept his word. He was an industrious man—honest, respectable, and kind-hearted. He succeeded in all his efforts to accumulate an independence; he did accumulate it, and uprightly. His character kept pace with the increase of his property, and he lived to sit as a magistrate upon that very bench that he sawed and planed."

Do as you wish to be done by. Follow this rule, and you will need no force to keep you honest.

THE PEOPLE'S MAGAZINE.

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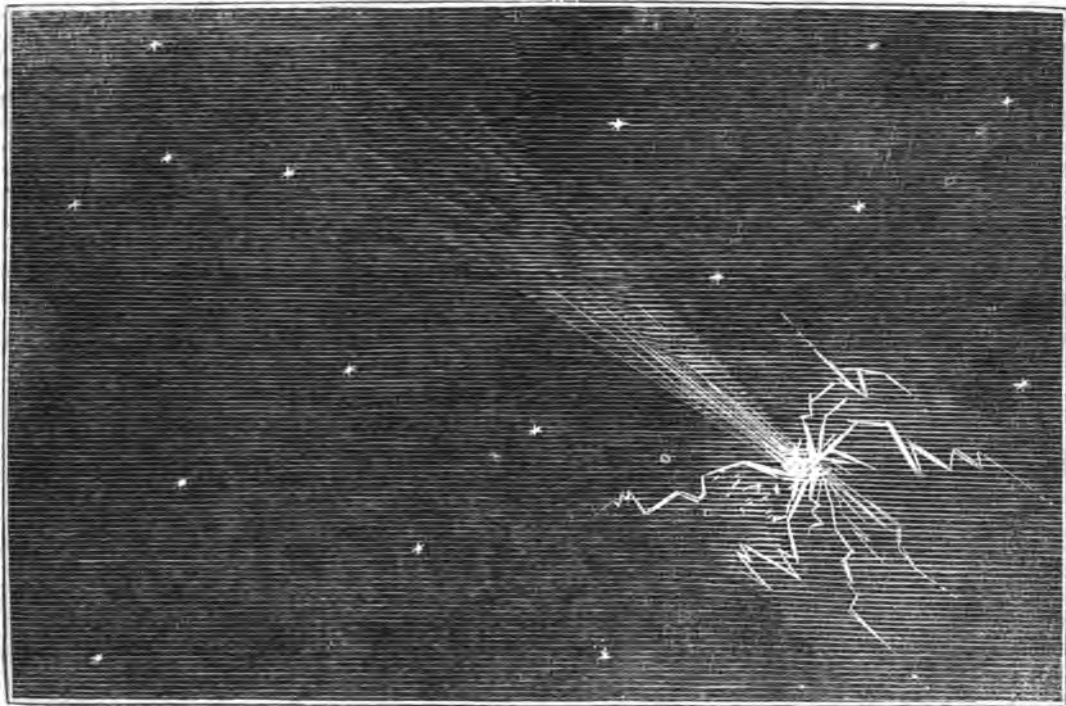
THE PEOPLE'S MAGAZINE.

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SATURDAY, JANUARY 25, 1834.

VOL. I



THE METEOR OF 1807.

The above engraving is intended to represent the appearance of an extraordinary meteor, which was seen in Connecticut, on the 14th of December, 1807, and exploded with several discharges. From the observations made at the different places where this meteor was witnessed, an eminent mathematician, Dr. Bowditch, formed an estimate of its height, direction, velocity and magnitude. From this estimate we learn, that the course of the meteor was about S. 7° W. in a direction nearly parallel to the surface of the earth, and at the height of eighteen miles. It passed over a space of more than one hundred and seven miles while visible at Rutland and Weston, and this time was by estimation about thirty seconds, therefore the velocity of the meteor probably exceeded three miles per second, which is fourteen times as swift as the motion of sound, and nearly as great, as the velocity of a satellite, revolving about the earth at the same distance.

At the time of the first appearance of the meteor at Weston, it was one hundred and thirteen miles distant from that place, nearly in a north direction; it was then but little elevated above the horizon; at the time of explosion, near the zenith of Weston, it was only twenty miles distant from the observer; at the same moment it could have been seen at Wenham, at the distance of one hundred and sixty-seven miles, and this is the greatest distance at which it was seen.

Some of the observers supposed the meteor to have appeared as large as the moon when full, others estimated it at one half, or one quarter of that magnitude. The real diameter of the meteor

resulting from the greatest of these estimates would exceed a mile. This estimate exceeds by far the weight of the whole mass that fell near Weston, which, by the accounts published does not appear to have been greater than half a ton, and would not form a sphere of two feet diameter of the same specific gravity as the stone. A sphere of this diameter, seen at the distance of the meteor from Wenham, would hardly be visible without the assistance of a telescope, since its apparent diameter would not exceed two thirds of a second. These facts seem to favor the opinion, that part of the mass continued on its course without falling to the earth near Weston.

As it is but within a few years, that observations of these meteors have been carefully made, we have not yet sufficient data for a well-grounded theory of their nature and origin: none that has yet been proposed is free from difficulties. The greatness of the mass of the Weston meteor does not accord, either with the supposition of its having been formed in our atmosphere, or projected from a volcano of the earth or moon; and the striking uniformity of all the masses that have fallen at different places and times (which indicates a common origin) does not, if we reason from the analogy of the planetary system, altogether agree with the supposition, that such bodies are satellites of the earth.

The meteor of 1807 was observed about a quarter past six on Monday morning. The day had just dawned, and there was little light except from the moon, which was just setting. It seemed to be half the diameter of the full moon; and passed, like a globe of fire, across the northern margin of the sky.

It passed behind some clouds, and when it came out it flashed like heat lightning. It had a train of light, and appeared like a burning firebrand carried against the wind. It continued in sight about half a minute, and, in about an equal space after it faded, three loud and distinct reports, like those of a four pounder near at hand, were heard. Then followed a quick succession of smaller reports, seeming like what soldiers call a running fire. The appearance of the meteor was as if it took three successive throes, or leaps, and at each explosion a rushing of stones was heard through the air, some of which struck the ground with a heavy fall.

The first fall was in the town of Huntington, near the house of Mr. Merwin Burr. He was standing in the road, in front of his house, when the stone fell, and struck a rock of granite about fifty feet from him, with a loud noise. The rock was stained a dark lead color, and the stone was principally shattered into very small fragments, which were thrown around to a distance of twenty feet. The largest piece was about the size of a goose egg, and was still warm.

The stones of the second explosion fell about five miles distant, near Mr. William Prince's residence, in Weston. He and his family were in bed, when they heard the explosion; and also heard a heavy body fall to the earth. They afterwards found a hole in the earth, about twenty-five feet from the house, like a newly dug post-hole, about one foot in diameter, and two feet deep, in which they found a meteoric stone buried, which weighed thirty-five pounds. Another mass fell half a mile distant, upon a rock, which it split in two, and was itself shattered to pieces. Another piece, weighing thirteen pounds, fell half a mile to the northeast, into a ploughed field.

At the last explosion, a mass of stone fell in a field belonging to Mr. Elijah Seely, about thirty rods from his house. This stone falling on a ledge, was shattered to pieces. It ploughed up a large portion of the ground, and scattered the earth and stones to the distance of fifty or a hundred feet. Some cattle that were near were very much frightened, and jumped into an enclosure. It was concluded that this last stone, before being broken, must have weighed about two hundred weight. These stones were all of a similar nature, and different from any commonly found on this globe. When first found, they were easily reduced to powder by the fingers, but by exposure to the air they gradually hardened.

In relation to the late wonderful display of meteors, a correspondent of the Philadelphia Advocate of Science remarks:

"The causes of these unusual phenomena, although they have elicited much inquiry, remain to be explained. That these meteors were dependent on the same causes as the common 'shooting stars,' does not admit of a doubt. The theories that have hitherto been advanced to account for them are, the inflammation of gas, the former explosion of a planet, terrene volcanoes, lunar volcanoes, terrestrial comets and electricity.

"That they depend on the combustion of gas, is a notion that has become obsolete. No philosopher of the present day, so far as I am aware, pretends to uphold it.

"Some have ascribed them to the explosion of the ancient planets of which the four asteroids were composed. A vast quantity of small fragments, say they, were driven into space by this

catastrophe, and these fragments continue to revolve in the solar system, and when they chance to enter the earth's atmosphere, take fire, owing to friction, and give rise to meteors. To this it may be replied, that if every visible meteor were a solid body, the fall of meteoric stones would be an every day occurrence; whereas it rarely happens.

"The same argument is sufficient to refute the doctrine that they proceed from volcanoes in the moon, or in the earth, or that they are terrestrial comets. In short, this argument disproves any theory which regards them as so many solid bodies.

"It seems to me that the most plausible method of explaining them, is to refer them to electrical agency. By some persons they are supposed to be of two kinds, electrical, and solid. Those which appear so frequently in the upper regions of the atmosphere are alleged to consist of electricity, while the others are said to be cometary bodies, revolving round the earth."

We shall pursue this interesting subject farther in some future number of the Magazine.

THE HULAN AND HIS CHARGER.

AFTER THEODORE KOERNER.

Stand my good charger! steady stand!
In thy thick mane I wreath my hand,
As bounding from the yellow sand,
We go to fight for Fatherland!

Hurrah! my steed, hurrah!

Let others pant the prize to gain,
In rival race on festal plain,
Be ours to join the marshal train,
Where warrior's blood flows fast as rain!
Hurrah! my steed, hurrah!

Hark! 't is the clarion's clanging bray,
'T is answered by the joyous neigh,
Forth to the battle's maddening fray,
Glory or death! for us to day!
Hurrah! my steed, hurrah!

The sabre gleams, the cuirass clanks,
Now side by side in charging ranks,
Like Danube when he bursts his banks,
We dash upon the foeman's ranks!
Hurrah! my steed hurrah!

LITHOGRAPHY.

It has already been shown, in a former article on this subject, that, for a series of years, Senefelder's patience and perseverance, under the most disadvantageous circumstances, were truly astonishing; and we shall now proceed briefly to detail such other particulars in further illustration of the preceding remarks, as may be deemed necessary for completing this part of our subject.

Satisfied as to the originality of his new discovery, Senefelder became anxious to turn it to account, by laying it before the world; and in order to raise the necessary funds for at once effecting this object, we find him, when all other means had failed, offering himself as a substitute for a friend who was then a soldier in the service of the elector of Bavaria, but with his usual want of success; for, on presenting himself at Ingolstadt for the purpose of being enrolled, it was discovered that he was not a native of the electorate, and, consequently, inadmissible to its army. His last hope seemed now to have failed him, and he describes his feelings as being at this time in a state

"bordering on despair." However, it was not long ere his prospects began again to brighten a little; and he at length succeeded in publishing, in conjunction with the composer, a collection of music, the execution of which was greatly admired, and which obtained for him the patronage of the elector, and a promise of an exclusive privilege.

About this time, another candidate for the honor of having discovered the new art came forward in the person of M. Schmidt, professor of the Royal College; and although, for a time, the station which this gentleman filled helped to support his pretensions against his less fortunate rival, public opinion by degrees became less divided, and ultimately there prevailed but one belief on the subject.

It was not till after having labored a considerable time in his new profession, and experiencing innumerable inconveniences from being compelled to execute all his writings on the stone backwards, that he commenced another series of experiments, the object of which was to obviate the necessity of *writing* on the stone, by previously doing it on paper, and then transferring it from the paper to the stone, *reversed*. Some thousands of experiments were made before he was enabled to produce a composition for preparing the surface of the paper suited for all the purposes which he had in view, and it was this property of the new art which more particularly attracted public notice, from the incalculable benefits which it was foreseen would be conferred on all kinds of business when fairly brought into general practice. It was about this time also that he invented the lever press, which added greatly to the comfort and certainty of the operations in the printing department of lithography.

Having at length obtained an exclusive privilege for exercising his art in Bavaria, he did not consider it any longer necessary to keep the process a secret, and it soon spread over the greater part of Germany; but his experience enabled him for several years to outstrip all his competitors in so far as the execution of his work was concerned, although, in every other respect, he seemed to be almost the only one in whose hands the art did not give ample returns both for money and labor. In no other way can this uniform want of success be accounted for, than by supposing, that, while others were making the most of what he had already discovered, he was devoting much of his time to the *experimental* part of the business. This in fact was the case.

About the year 1800, Senefelder went to London for the purpose of establishing himself there as a lithographer, but a few months sufficed to convince him that he had little chance of succeeding in his undertaking; and he returned to his own country, where, on his arrival, he found that many attempts had been made in his absence to deprive him of the benefit of his privilege. Among the most forward in this scheme were two of his brothers, to whom he had communicated all the secrets of the art, and it took some time to counteract the bad effects of their ungenerous conduct. Finding that, in his native place (Munich), others were reaping many of the advantages which by right should have been the reward of his own industry, he was induced to go to Vienna, for the purpose of superintending a calico printing establishment, the operations of which were to be conducted on the principles of the new art; and here, for the space of several years, his talents were entirely devoted to this new undertaking; but, at the end of which time, from a

variety of causes over which he had no control, he was again thrown upon the world, destitute of every thing save the resources of his own genius. It was not till about the year 1809 that Senefelder was extricated from the difficulties of his situation, by being appointed inspector of the royal lithographic establishment at Munich, which at once placed him above the necessity of exercising his profession as a means for gaining his daily subsistence, and enable him to devote a portion of his time to the improvement of such branches of the art, as, in his former circumstances, he had never found it possible to effect.

In conclusion, it may not be out of place to remark, that, in the case of Senefelder, we have another instance to the many recorded facts in the lives of eminent men, of the successful pursuit of knowledge under extraordinary difficulties—presenting an example worthy of our highest admiration and respect.



THE TURKEY VULTURE.

The Turkey Vulture, or Turkey Buzzard, is common in the south and west, but is very seldom seen as far north as New York. There are two species, the Turkey Vulture, and Black Vulture, which are birds of the same tribe that inhabit North America. The King Vulture of South America, with these two, are the only species known on the western continent.

We find the following in some of the papers. We do not greatly admire the experiment of putting out a bird's eyes, merely for the object mentioned; nor do we attach credit to the statement, though affirmed by Maj. Pillars.

"CURIOUS FACT IN NATURAL HISTORY.—We are by no means unaccommodating in our disposition to believe all we hear. We do not therefore assert our skepticism as to the truth of a communication, in the last number of the American Turf Register, from a correspondent in Illinois touching the power of the Turkey Buzzard, in a few moments to reproduce its eyes, when picked out, by putting its head under its wing! The assertion is made on the authority of the writer, who saw the experiment tried, and on the affidavit of Maj. John Pillars, who has witnessed it on numerous occasions. Mr. Skinner's correspondent says, speaking of a Buzzard, which his host had caught, 'Having no sharp pointed instrument at hand, other than a common pin, with that he punctured one of his eyes; the aqueous humor flowed out, a whitish-like film came over the eye, and all its lustre instantly disappeared. The head was then placed under the wing of the bird, where it remained a few minutes

only; and when taken out, the eye had resumed its own brilliancy, appearing as sound as the other, with not a speck upon it. In this experiment, it is true, the eyeball was not ripped open.' This is positive testimony to a most curious fact. Maj. Pillars, whose respectability is vouched, says, in his affidavit, that he ripped open the eyes of a Buzzard in the course of three or four months not less than fifty times; and once, at a log-rolling, ten times in one day. The head was, after each mutilation, placed for a few minutes, under the wing, when the bird gradually withdrew it, with two good sound eyes free from speck or blemish, and possessing the power of vision unimpaired. It is mentioned, as a common belief in the west, that the down of the buzzard's wing is a specific for blindness."—*Fredericksburg Arena*.



BRIDGES.

One of the most curious provincial bridges in Great Britain is that at Taff, in Glamorganshire. It is of one arch, and its space is rather more than one hundred and forty feet.

The architect of this bridge was a poor, uneducated man, and the persevering courage with which he pursued his object till the completion of the edifice, is worthy of record. His first attempts failed in consequence of the enormous pressure of the haunches or sides of the bridge, which forced up the key-stone, and to obviate this, he pierced the stone-work with cylindrical apertures, which remedied the defect. Prior to the erection of this bridge, that of the Rialto had the largest span of any in existence.

ON THE INSTINCT OF ANIMALS.

A wise and merciful Creator has bestowed upon man superiority over all his creatures. "The fear of him, and the dread of him, is upon every beast of the earth, and upon every fowl of the air; and upon all that moveth upon the earth, and upon all the fishes of the sea." But, while his superior reasoning faculties enable him to overcome all other living things,—to destroy those which are obnoxious, to tame and subdue those which may be rendered subservient to his necessities and comforts,—it is curious to observe the modes of defence or escape, which the same all-bountiful Providence, "without whose will not even a sparrow falleth to the ground," has bestowed upon those inferior classes, which are too frequently subject to the wanton persecution of the human race.

In no manner is His fatherly care of even the lowest of his creatures more curiously and convincingly displayed, than in the selection of the colors

with which he has clothed and adorned each particular order. Thus, he has contrasted with the ground on which they live, those animals that are capable of making their escape from danger, either by their strength or agility; while he has granted to those whose weakness, or slowness of motion, would expose them to the assaults of their enemies, a color, which by confounding them with the object upon which they rest, affords an easy means of escape. The snail is of the color of the bark of the trees upon which it feeds, or of the wall on which it takes refuge.

Flat fishes, which are indifferent swimmers, such as the turbot, the flounder, the plaice, the sole, and several others, which exist principally at the bottom of the sea, are of the color of the sands where they find their nourishment, being spotted like the beach with gray, yellow, black, red, and brown. But what is more wonderful, is the instinctive sensibility which they possess of the protection afforded them by this resemblance. When inclosed within the parks formed on the strand to entrap them, and the tide is gradually retiring, they bury their fins in the sand, awaiting the return of the tide, leaving only their backs visible; and thus, from their color, become hardly distinguishable from the ground in which they have partly imbedded themselves.

The fishermen make use of a kind of a sickle, with which they trace small furrows in every direction along the sand, to find out by the touch what they cannot discern with the eye. "Of this," says a celebrated French naturalist, "I have been frequently a witness—much more highly amused at the dexterity displayed by the fish than at the skill of the fisherman."

The same wonderful instinct, and correspondence of their plumage to the color of the earth, may be remarked in most of our small birds, whose flight is feeble, and of short duration. The gray lark, when alarmed or terrified, glides away, and takes its station between two little clods of earth, and at this post will remain with such steadfastness, as hardly to quit it when the foot of the fowler is ready to crush it. The same thing is true of the partridge: sportsmen cannot fail to have remarked, that these birds, when "they are as wild as hawks" on the stubble, will frequently on the fallows "lie like stones."

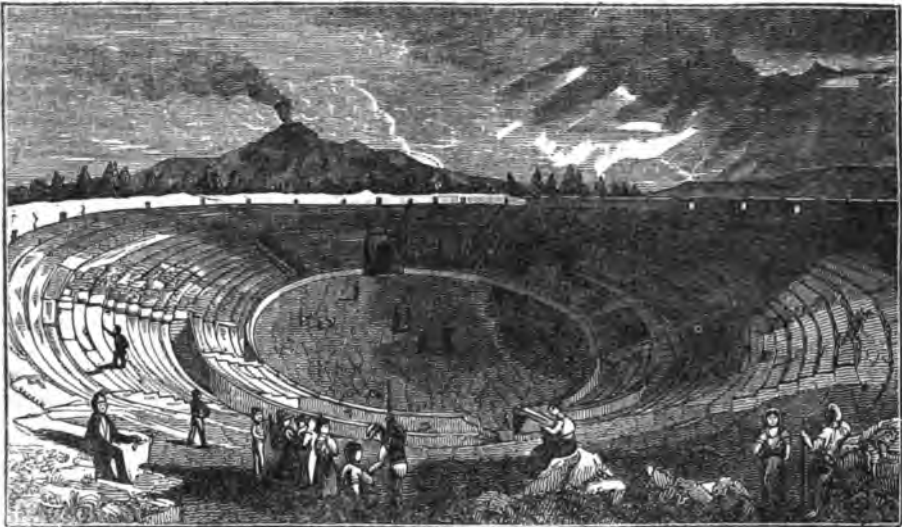
A similar degree of instinct has been remarked even in insects, an instance of which I may be excused for extracting from the account of a distinguished observer of the natural world:

"In the month of March last, I observed by the brink of a rivulet, a butterfly, of the color of brick, reposing, with expanded wings, on a tuft of grass. On my approaching him, he flew off, but alighted at some paces distance on the ground, which, at that place, was of the same color with himself. I approached him a second time: he once more took flight, and perched again on a similar stripe of earth. In a word, I found it was not in my power to oblige him to alight on the grass, though I made frequent attempts to that effect,—and though the spaces of earth which separated the turfy soil, were remarkably narrow and few in number."

On a future occasion I may take an opportunity of continuing this subject. R. H. F.

Salutation.—The Laplanders apply their noses strongly against the person they salute.

In New Guinea, they place leaves upon the head of those they salute.



VIEW OF THE AMPHITHEATRE OF POMPEII.

Some hundred yards from the theatres, in the southeastern angle of the walls of the town, stands the Amphitheatre. The splendor of spectacle was carried to an extreme at Rome which has never been equalled. At an early period, the practice of compelling human beings to fight for the amusement of spectators was introduced; and at a later period, the capture of several elephants in the first Punic war proved the means of introducing the chase, or rather the slaughter of wild beasts, into the Roman circus. The taste for these spectacles increased of course with its indulgence, and their magnificence with the wealth of the city and the increasing facility and inducement to practice bribery, which was offered by the increased extent of provinces subject to Rome.

It was not however until the last period of the republic, or rather until the domination of the Emperors had collected into one channel the tributary wealth which previously was divided among a numerous aristocracy, that buildings were erected solely for the accommodation of gladiatorial shows; buildings apparently beyond the compass of a subject's wealth, in which perhaps the magnificence of ancient Rome is most amply displayed. Numerous examples, scattered throughout her empire in a more or less advanced stage of decay, still attest the luxury and solidity of their construction: while at Rome the Coliseum asserts the pre-eminent splendor of the metropolis; a monument surpassed in magnitude by the pyramids alone, and as superior to them in skill and varied contrivance of design, as to other buildings in its gigantic magnitude.

The form of the amphitheatre of Pompeii is, as usual, oval: the extreme length, from outside to outside of the exterior arcade, is four hundred and thirty feet, its greatest breadth is three hundred and thirty-five feet. The spectators gained admission by tickets, which had numbers or marks on them, corresponding with similar signs on the arches through which they entered. Those who were entitled to occupy the lower ranges of seats, passed through the perforated arcades of the lower order: those whose place was in the upper portion of the cavea, ascended by staircases between the seats and the outer wall of the building. From hence the women again ascended to the upper tier,

which was divided into boxes, and appropriated to them. The construction consists for the most part of the rough masonry called *opus incertum*, with quoins of squared stone, and some trifling restorations of rubble. This rude mass was probably once covered with a more sumptuous facing of hewn stone: but there are now no other traces of it than a few of the key-stones, on one of which a chariot and two horses is sculptured, on another a head; besides which there are a few stars on the wedge-stones.

REMARKABLE TRAVELS.

The accounts brought home by travellers, regarding countries rarely visited and little known, have been always received with much incredulity by those who were little acquainted with the world; and the Persian Proverb that "he who has seen the world has a right to tell lies," has been used rather too lavishly in judging of the details of travellers, that were afterwards found to be worthy of far different treatment. "We travellers," says Lady Wortley Montague, "are in very bad circumstances: If we say nothing but what has been said before us, we are dull, and we have observed nothing. If we tell any thing new, we are laughed at as fabulous and romantic, not allowing either for the difference of ranks, which affords difference of company, or more curiosity, or the change of customs, that happens every twenty years in every country. But the truth is, people judge of travellers exactly with the same candor, good-nature, and impartiality, they judge of their neighbors upon all occasions." It is this which has led many men of high honor, who would not submit to have their veracity called in question, to continue entirely silent regarding many remarkable things seen by them in strange countries, and the relation of which would most probably have been received with evident incredulity by the hearers.

A Hindoo scarcely thinks it possible that any nation can live without rice—a Greenlander thinks the same of blubber—a Persian thinks the same of the date-tree—an African of the palm-tree—a Maldivian of the cocoa-nut—and a Tartar of the horse—while the native of Terra del Fuego would be much astonished if he were told that any nation

could live without shell-fish. It is only by attending to the accounts of respectable travellers regarding foreign countries, that the clouds of vulgar error and prejudice can be removed; and, in this way, it is now firmly believed by all sensible men that there is such a creature as a camelopard or a kangaroo in the world; and that there are some countries where oysters, and bread and milk, grow upon trees—all of which would have been set down to the credit of Aboulfouaris, and the Arabian Nights, at no very distant period. Accordingly, by way of fostering this vulgar incredulity, it is more than probable that the first accounts of the Patagonians furnished Swift with a hint for his giants in Gulliver's Travels; as the adventures of Baron de Tott, among the Turks, at a much later period, produced the memoirs of the unparalleled Baron Munchausen! Bruce's veracity regarding what he saw in Abyssinia was likewise called in question without ceremony; and it was not till a considerable time after his death, that the character of that high-minded traveller was proved to be without a flaw.

With the view of removing such prejudices as these, which are almost always based on ignorance, we shall, in this and a few succeeding articles, bring forward the accounts given by some travellers of unquestionable authority, of their observations and adventures in uncivilized countries; taking care to select such as appear to be most uncommon, and such as may afford most amusement and instruction to our youthful readers in particular.

What *Africa* was to the ancients in the way of producing novelties, *America* has been to the moderns. Utopia, New Atlantis, El Dorado, Fairy Land, and the Painters' Wives' Islands, were all said by the wits of the sixteenth century to be portions of this lately discovered quarter of the globe. "The Painter's Wife's Island," says Dr. Huelyn, "is an island of this tract, mentioned by Sir Walter Raleigh in his *History of the World*; of which he was informed by Don Pedro de Sarmiento, a Spanish gentleman employed by his king in planting some colonies on the Straits of Magellan, who, being taken prisoner by Sir Walter in his going home, was asked of him about some island which the maps presented in those straits, and might have been of great use to him in his undertaking; to which he merrily replied, that it was to be called the Painter's Wife's Island, saying, that while the painter drew that map, his wife sitting by desired him to put in one country for her, that she in her imagination might have an island of her own. His meaning was, that there was no such island as the maps presented. And I fear the painter's wife hath many islands, and some countries too, upon the continent, in our common maps, which are not really to be found on the strictest search." Of such sort, also, are what are called the Lands of Chivalry; of which the Isle of Adamants, in Sir Huon of Bordeaux; the Firm Land, in the history of Amadis de Gaul; the Hidden Island, and that of the sage Alart, in Sir Palmerin of England; as also the Island of Barataria, of which the famous Sancho Panza was some time governor, and the kingdom of Micomicon; "which, as the ingenious author of the *History of Don Quixote* merrily observeth," says Dr. Huelyn, "are not to be found in all the map."

In the morning, think on what you are to do in the day, and at night think on what you have done

AN ULTRA-MARINER.

According to father Feyjoo, in the month of June, 1674, some young men were walking by the sea-side in Bilbao, when one of them, named Francis de la Vega, of about fifteen years of age, suddenly leaped into the sea, and disappeared presently. His companions, after waiting some time, and he not returning, made the event public, and sent an account of it to De la Vega's mother at Lierganès, a small town in the archbishopric of Burgos. At first she discredited his death, but his absence occasioned her fond doubts to vanish, and she mourned his untimely loss.

About five years afterwards some fishermen, in the environs of Cadiz, perceived the figure of a man sometimes swimming, and sometimes plunging under the water. On the next day they saw the same, and mentioned it as a very singular circumstance to several people. They threw their nets, and bating the swimmer with some pieces of bread, they at length caught the object of their attention, which to their astonishment they found to be a well-formed man. They put several questions to him in various languages, but he answered none. They then took him to the convent of St. Francis, where he was exorcised, thinking he might be possessed by some evil spirit. The exorcism was as useless as the questions. At length, after some days, he pronounced the word Lierganès. It happened that a person belonging to that town was present when he uttered the name, as was also the secretary of the Inquisition, who wrote to his correspondent at Lierganès, relating the particulars, and instituting inquiries relative to this very extraordinary man; and he received an account of the young man who had disappeared in the manner before related.

On this information, it was determined that the marine man should be sent to Lierganès; and a Franciscan friar, who was obliged to go there on other business, undertook to conduct him the following year. When they came within a quarter of a league of the town, the friar ordered the young man to go before and show him the way. He made no answer, but led the friar to the widow De la Vega's house. She recollected him instantly, and embraced him, cried out, "This is my son, that I lost at Bilbao!" Two of his brothers who were present also knew him immediately, and embraced him with equal tenderness. He, however, did not evince the least sensibility, or the smallest degree of surprise. He spoke no more at Lierganès than at Cadiz, nor could any thing be obtained from him relative to his adventure. He had entirely forgotten his native language, except the words *pan*, *vino*, *tabaco*, "bread, wine, tobacco;" and these he uttered indiscriminately and without application. They asked him if he would have either of these articles; he could make no reply.

For several days together he would eat large quantities of bread, and for as many days following he would not take the least food of any kind. If he was directed to do any thing, he would execute the commission very properly, but without speaking a word: he would carry a letter to where it was addressed, and bring an answer back in writing. He was sent one day with a letter to St. Ander; to get there it was necessary to cross the river at Padrenna, which is more than a league wide in that spot; not finding a boat in which he could cross it, he threw himself in, swam over, and delivered the letter as directed.

At this time Francis de la Vega was nearly six

feet in height, and well formed, with a fair skin, and red hair as short as a new-born infant's. He always went barefooted, and had scarcely any nails either on his hands or feet. He never dressed himself but when he was told to do it. The same with eating; what was offered to him he accepted, but he never asked for food.

In this way he remained at his mother's nine years, when he again disappeared, without any apparent cause, and no one knew how. It may be supposed, however, that the motive of feeling which induced his first disappearance influenced the second. Some time afterwards it was reported that an inhabitant of Lierganès again saw Francis de la Vega in some port of Asturias; but this was never confirmed.

When this very singular man was first taken out of the sea at Cadiz, it is said that his body was entirely covered with scales, but they fell off soon after his coming out of the water. They also add, that different parts of his body were as hard as shagreen.

Father Feyjoo adds many philosophical reflections on the existence of this phenomenon, and on the means by which a man may be enabled to live at the bottom of the sea. He observes that if Francis de la Vega had preserved his reason and the use of speech, he would have given us more instruction and information in marine affairs, than all the naturalists combined.



CASTANOSPERMUM AUSTRALE

This singular fruit, which may not improperly be called the chestnut bean, was lately found by Mr. Cunningham upon the banks of the Brisbane river, in Moreton Bay, New South Wales. It is the produce of a large and handsome tree, which belongs to a new and undescribed genus, though in some particulars it seems allied to Robinia. The leaves are pinnate, upon long footstalks; the leaflets entire, and there is a terminal one. The flowers, which are papilionaceous, are produced at the bases of the leaves in considerable numbers, not unlike those of the Robinia hispida. These flowers are succeeded by pods, very large, hard, and of a brownish, or cinnamon color. These pods contain

a variable number of roundish seeds or beans, compressed on the one side, and covered with a thin loose shell of a chestnut color; when roasted, they have very much the flavor of chestnuts; and in a country where edible fruits of indigenous growth are few, they are at least a curiosity.



RAVAGES OF LOCUSTS.

The various instances of voracity among insects, sink into insignificance, when compared with the terrible devastation produced by the larvæ of the locust—the scourge of oriental countries. “A fire devoureth before them,” says the prophet Joel, “and behind them a flame burneth: the land is as the garden of Eden before them, and behind them a desolate wilderness; yea, and nothing shall escape them. The sound of their wings is as the sound of chariots, of many horses running to battle; on the tops of mountains shall they leap, like the noise of a flame of fire that devoureth the stubble, as a strong people set in battle-array. Before their faces, the people shall be much pained, all faces shall gather blackness. They shall run like mighty men; they shall climb the wall like men of war; and they shall march every one in his ways, and they shall not break their ranks; neither shall one thrust another.”—Joel ii. 2. &c.

The intelligent traveller, Dr Shaw, was an eye witness of their devastations in Barbary in 1724, where they first appeared about the end of March, their numbers increasing so much in the beginning of April as literally to darken the sun; but by the middle of May they began to disappear, retiring into the Mettijah and other adjacent plains to deposit their eggs. “These were no sooner hatched in June,” he continues, “than each of the broods collected itself into a compact body, of a furlong or more in square; and marching afterwards directly forwards toward the sea, they let nothing escape them,—they kept their ranks like men of war; climbing over, as they advanced, every tree or wall that was in their way; nay, they entered into our very houses and bed-chambers like so many thieves. The inhabitants, to stop their progress, formed trenchers all over their fields and gardens, which they filled with water. Some placed large quantities of heath, stubble, and other combustible matter, in rows, and set them on fire on the approach of the locusts; but this was all to no purpose, for the trenches were quickly filled up, and the fires put out, by immense swarms that succeeded each other.”

Even England has been alarmed by the appearance of locusts, a considerable number having visited that island in 1748; but they happily perished without propagating. Other parts of Europe have not been so fortunate. In 1650 a cloud of locusts were seen to enter Russia in three different places; and they afterwards spread themselves over Poland and Lithuania in such astonishing multitudes, that the air was darkened, and the earth covered with

their numbers. In some places they were seen lying dead, heaped upon each other to the depth of four feet; in others they covered the surface of the ground like a black cloth: the trees bent with their weight, and the damage the country sustained exceeded computation. They have frequently come also from Africa into Italy and Spain. In the year 591 an infinite army of locusts, of a size unusually large, ravaged a considerable part of Italy, and being at last cast into the sea, (as seems for the most part to be their fate,) a pestilence, it is alleged, arose from their stench, which carried off nearly a million of men and beasts. In the Venetian territory, likewise, in 1478, more than thirty thousand persons are said to have perished in a famine chiefly occasioned by the depredations of locusts.

SATURDAY EVENING.

The week is past, the Sabbath-dawn comes on.
Rest—rest in peace—thy daily toil is done;
And standing, as thou standest on the brink
Of a new scene of being, calmly think
Of what is gone, is now, and soon shall be
As one that trembles on Eternity.
For, sure as this now closing week is past,
So sure advancing Time will close my last;
Sure as to-morrow, shall the awful light
Of the eternal morning hail my sight.

Spirit of good! on this week's verge I stand,
Tracing the guiding influence of thy hand;
That hand, which leads me gently, kindly still,
Up life's dark, stony, tiresome, thorny hill;
Thou, thou, in every storm hast sheltered me
Beneath the wing of thy benignity:
A thousand graves my footsteps circumvent,
And I exist—thy mercies' monument!
A thousand writhe upon the bed of pain;
I live—and pleasure flows through every vein.
Want o'er a thousand wretches waves her wand;
I, circled by ten thousand mercies, stand.
How can I praise thee, Father! how express
My debt of reverence and of thankfulness!
A debt that no intelligence can count,
While every moment swells the vast amount.
For the week's duties thou hast given me strength,
And brought me to its peaceful close at length;
And here, my grateful bosom fain would raise,
A fresh memorial to thy glorious praise.—*Bowring.*

CURIOUS CASE OF DECEPTION.

A very curious case of deception was communicated to me by the son of the lady principally concerned, and tends to show out of what mean materials a venerable apparition may be sometimes formed. In youth, this lady resided with her father, a man of sense and resolution. Their house was situated in the principal street of a town of some size. The back part of the house ran at right angles to an anabaptist chapel, divided from it by a small cabbage-garden. The young lady used sometimes to indulge the romantic love of solitude, by sitting in her own apartment in the evening, till twilight, and even darkness, was approaching.

One evening, while she was thus placed, she was surprised to see a gleamy figure, as of some aerial being, hovering, as it were, against the arched window in the end of the anabaptist chapel. Its head was surrounded by that halo which painters give to the catholic saints; and, while the young lady's attention was fixed on an object so extraordinary, the figure bent gracefully towards her, more than once, as if intimating a sense of her presence, and then disappeared. The seer of this striking

vision descended to her family, so much discomposed as to call her father's attention. He obtained an account of the cause of her disturbance, and expressed his intention to watch in the apartment next night. He sat, accordingly, in his daughter's chamber, where she also attended him. Twilight came, and nothing appeared; but as the gray light faded into darkness, the same female figure was seen hovering on the window; the same shadowy form; the same pale light around the head; the same inclinations, as the evening before. "What do you think of this?" said the daughter to the astonished father. "Any thing, my dear," said the father, "rather than allow that we look upon what is supernatural."

A strict research established a natural cause for the appearance on the window. It was the custom of an old woman, to whom the garden beneath was rented, to go out at night to gather cabbages. The lantern she carried in her hand, threw up the refracted reflection of her form on the chapel window. As she stooped to gather her cabbages, the reflection appeared to bend forward; and that was the whole matter.—*Sir Walter Scott's Demonology.*

SASSAFRAS TEA.—A writer in the *Farmer's Register*, after stating the difficulty which he has experienced in subduing sassafras bushes, gives the following account of the exportation of the roots:

Upon chewing the leaves, at any time from their most tender and succulent state, to their full maturity, they will be found full of mucilage, which, it seems likely, may be of use in medicine or the arts. It is well known that every part of the sassafras tree has a delightful smell and pleasant taste. The blossoms dried, and the bark of the root, make a tea which is so agreeable that I think nothing but the abundance and cheapness of the material has prevented its being generally used for this purpose. About twenty years ago, a trade in the roots of the sassafras was commenced by sending it from James's river to England, where the use of the tea was extending among the lower classes. The roots commanded a good price, and the trade promised to be profitable to us; but the jealousy of the East India Company (as it was said) caused this new trade to be quickly destroyed, by new and prohibitory duties on the article. During the few years that the exportation continued, the large roots of nearly all the sassafras trees in my neighborhood were dug up for that purpose; but as there was no difference of price offered, the roots of small shrubs, (though vastly superior in delicacy and strength of flavor,) were never used for sale, as they are much more troublesome to collect. If the purchasers had known the difference of value, a ton of small roots would have been sold for as much as twenty tons of whole stumps and large roots of trees, which formed nearly the whole amount of the commodity exported.—*New York Farmer.*

Greenlanders have no mode of salutation, and laugh at the idea of one person being inferior to another.

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Vol. I.



THE RETURN OF CAPTAIN ROSS.

The news of the safe return of Captain Ross has been received both in Great Britain and the United States with unfeigned sensations of joy. The hardy navigator, with his nephew, Commander Ross, and the whole of his party except three, two of whom died on the passage out, and one at a later period, arrived at Hull on the morning of Friday, the 18th of October, 1833.

It was in 1829 that Captain Ross fitted out his expedition to determine the practicability of a new passage, which had been confidently stated to exist, particularly by Prince Regent's Inlet, but in consequence of the loss of the foremast of his vessel, the *Victory*, he was obliged to refit at Wideford, in Greenland. The accounts of his departure from thence on the 27th July, 1829, formed the last authentic intelligence received of the expedition. By the subsequent details it will be perceived that he was picked up by the *Isabelle* of Hull,—the very ship—by a singular coincidence, in which he made his first voyage to the Arctic regions.

By Captain Ross's account it appears, that the first season (that of 1829,) was the mildest that had ever been recorded, and the sea was more clear of ice than had been experienced during any preceding voyages. On the 13th of August, Capt. Ross reached the spot where the stores of his majesty's late ship, the *Fury*, were landed.

"Early in January, 1830," says Captain Ross, "we had the good fortune to establish a friendly intercourse with a most interesting consociation of natives, who, being insulated by nature, had never before communicated with strangers; from them we

gradually obtained the important information that we had already seen the continent of America, that about forty miles to the S. W. there were two great seas, one to the west, which was divided from that to the east by a narrow strait or neck of land. The verification of this intelligence either way, on which our future operations so materially depended, devolved on Commander Ross, who volunteered his service early in April, and, accompanied by one of the mates, and guided by two of the natives, proceeded to the spot, and found that the north land was connected to the south by two ridges of high land, fifteen miles in breadth, but, taking into account a chain of fresh water lakes, which occupied the valleys between, the dry land which actually separates the two oceans is only five miles. This extraordinary isthmus was subsequently visited by myself, when Commander Ross proceeded minutely to survey the seacoast to the southward of the isthmus leading to the westward, which he succeeded in tracing to the ninety-ninth degree, or to one hundred and fifty miles of Cape Turnagain of Franklin, to which point the land, after leading him into the 70th degree of north latitude, trended directly; during the same journey he also surveyed thirty miles of the adjacent coast, or that to the north of the isthmus, which, by also taking a westerly direction, formed the termination of the western sea into a gulf. The rest of this season was employed in tracing the seacoast south of the isthmus leading to the eastward, which was done so as to leave no doubt that it joined, as the natives had previously informed us, to Ockulles, and the

land forming Repulse Bay. It was also determined that there was no passage to the westward for thirty miles to the northward of our position.

"This summer, like that of 1818, was beautifully fine, but extremely unfavorable for navigation, and our object being now to try a more northern latitude, we waited with anxiety for the disruption of the ice, but in vain, and our utmost endeavors did not succeed in retracing our steps more than four miles, and it was not until the middle of November that we succeeded in cutting the vessel into a place of security, which we named 'Sheriff's Harbor.' I may here mention that we named the newly-discovered continent to the southward, 'Boothia,' as also the isthmus, the peninsula to the north, and the eastern sea, after my worthy friend, Felix Booth, Esq. the truly patriotic citizen of London, who, in the most disinterested manner, enabled me to equip this expedition in a superior style.

"The last winter was in temperature nearly equal to the mean of what had been experienced on the four preceding voyages, but the winters of 1830 and 1831 set in with a degree of violence hitherto beyond record—the thermometer sunk to ninety-two degrees below the freezing point, and the average of the year was ten degrees below the preceding; but notwithstanding the severity of the summer, we travelled across the country to the west sea by a chain of lakes, thirty miles north of the isthmus, when Commander Ross succeeded in surveying fifty miles more of the coast leading to the northwest, and by tracing the shore to the northward of our position, it was also fully proved that there could be no passage below the seventy-first degree.

"This autumn we succeeded in getting the vessel only fourteen miles to the northward, as we had not doubled the Eastern Cape, all hope of saving the ship was at an end, and put quite beyond possibility by another very severe winter; and having only provisions to last us to the 1st of June, 1833, disposition were accordingly made, to leave the ship in present port, which (after her) was named Victory Harbor. Provisions and fuel being carried forward in the spring, we left the ship on the 28th May, 1832, for Fury Beach, being the only chance left of saving our lives; owing to the very rugged nature of the ice, we were obliged to keep either upon or close to the land, making the circuit of every bay, thus increasing our distance of two hundred miles by nearly one half; and it was not until the first of July that we reached the beach completely exhausted by hunger and fatigue.

"A hut was speedily constructed, and the boats, three of which had been washed off the beach, but providentially driven on shore again, were repaired during this month; and the unusual heavy appearance of the ice afforded us no cheering prospect until the 1st of August, when in three boats we reached the ill-fated spot where the Fury was first driven on shore, and it was not until the first of September we reached Leopold South Island, now established to be the N. E. point of America, in latitude 73, 56, and longitude 90 west. From the summit of the lofty mountain on the promontory we could see Prince Regent's Inlet, Barrow's Strait, and Lancaster Sound, which presented one impenetrable mass of ice, just as I had seen it in 1818. Here we remained in a state of anxiety and suspense which may be easier imagined than described. All our attempts to push through were vain; at length being forced by want of provisions and the

approach of a very severe winter to return to Fury Beach, where alone there remained wherewith to sustain life, there we arrived on the 7th of October, after a most fatiguing and laborious march, having been obliged to leave our boats at Batty Bay. Our habitation, which consisted of a frame of spars, thirty-two by sixteen feet, covered with canvass, was during the month of November enclosed, and the roof covered with snow, from four to seven feet thick, which being saturated with water when the temperature was fifteen degrees below zero, immediately took the consistency of ice, and thus we actually became the inhabitants of an iceberg during one of the most severe winters hitherto recorded; our sufferings aggravated by want of bedding, clothing, and animal food, need not be dwelt upon. Mr. C. Thomas, the carpenter, was the only man who perished at this beach, but three others, besides one who had lost his foot, were reduced to the last stage of debility, and only thirteen of our number were able to carry provisions in seven journeys of sixty-two miles each to Batty Bay.

"We left Fury Beach on the 8th of July, carrying with us three sick men, who were unable to walk, and in six days we reached the boats, where the sick daily recovered. Although the spring was mild, it was not until the 15th August that we had any cheering prospect. A gale from the westward having suddenly opened a lane of water along shore, in two days we reached our former position, and from the mountain we had the satisfaction of seeing clear water across Prince Regent's Inlet, which we crossed on the 17th, and took shelter from a storm twelve miles to the eastward of Cape York. The next day, when the gale abated, we crossed Admiralty Inlet, and were detained six days on the coast by a strong N. E. wind. On the 25th we crossed Navy Board Inlet, and on the following morning, to our inexpressible joy, we descried a ship in the offing, becalmed, which proved to be the *Isabelle* of Hull, the same ship which I commanded in 1818. At noon we reached her, when her enterprising commander, who had in vain searched for us in Prince Regent's Inlet, after giving us three cheers, received us with every demonstration of kindness and hospitality which humanity could dictate. I ought to mention also that Mr. Humphreys, by landing me at Possession Bay, and subsequently on the west coast of Baffin's Bay, afforded me an excellent opportunity of concluding my survey, and of verifying my former chart of that coast."

On the foregoing page, a sketch is given which may convey some idea of the situation of the navigators. The party were not more reduced by their sufferings than might have been expected. They have now recovered from the effects of those sufferings. The circumstance that Captain Ross was rescued by the ship he commanded in 1818, is a curious and happy conclusion of the voyage, the result of which has established, that there is no new (N. W.) passage south of seventy-four degrees.

The true position of the magnetic pole has been discovered, and much valuable information obtained for the improvement of geographical and philosophical knowledge. Captain Ross had a good opportunity of verifying his former survey of the coast of Baffin's Bay, which every master of a Greenland ship can testify to be most correct.

On the whole, it may be truly said, that this expedition has done more than any that preceded it; and let it be remembered that Captain Ross and

his nephew were volunteers, serving without pay, for the attainment of a great national object, in prosecuting which they have lost their all.

From Hull, Captain Ross proceeded to London, and received the most gratifying testimonials of public approbation of his services.

So incredulous had been the public of the possibility of his having returned in safety, that when the news of it first reached London, it was taken as a hoax, and although a meeting of the subscribers to Captain Back's expedition was convened in order to take measures immediately to recall that gallant and self-devoted individual, Mr. Perry, the Governor of Hudson's Bay Company, in assenting to take the preliminary steps for expediting such recall, yet spoke of the return of Captain Ross as far from certain. Having appeared, however, in person, all doubts were at an end; and orders from the Hudson's Bay Company, have been sent to transmit by express to Captain Back, the gratifying intelligence of the safe return of those, of whom, amidst the discouragements and uncertainties of all others, he had not despaired, and for the chance, desperate as it seemed to most, of rescuing whom, he willingly incurred the risk of much toil and suffering, and the imminent hazard of a lingering and protracted death.

Truly enviable, indeed, will be his feelings, when he hears of the safety of his friend, and finds, moreover that after justly entitling himself to the whole merit of such a sacrifice as his attempt implies, he may be very honorably, and for the most sufficient reasons, exempted from the hardships and perils of farther prosecuting it.

ON THE HEAVENLY BODIES.

One of the greatest circumstances which fixes the attention in the contemplation of the heavenly bodies that form our system, is the surprising distances at which they are placed, and the stupendous amount of space which they occupy by their circuits. Our Earth is about 90 millions of miles from the sun; Saturn is above 800 more millions further off; and the next and most remote that we know, which is connected with us, the Uranus, is twice that mighty distance. Mr. Hornsby has made the following calculations of the absolute distances of the planets from the sun in English miles:—

Mercury	36,281,700	Mars	142,818,000
Venus	67,795,500	Jupiter	487,472,000
Our Earth	93,726,900	Saturn	894,162,000

The Uranus is twice that of Saturn. The fact is sublime, and vast beyond the power of our words to express, or of our ideas to conceive. This last planet of our system rolls in an oval circuit, of which 1788 millions of miles is the diameter; and, therefore, goes round an area of 5000 millions of miles. Our system occupies this amazing portion of space; and yet is but one small compartment of the indescribable universe. Immense as is an area of 5000 millions of miles, yet it is but a very little part of the incomprehensible whole. Above 100,000 stars, apparently suns like ours, shine above us; and to each of these, that analogy would lead us to assign a similar space: but of such marvellous extent and being, although visibly real from the existence of the shining orbs that testify its certainty to us, the mind, with all its efforts, can form no distinct idea.

Another consideration is astounding:—when we

gaze in a clear evening, on the bright Jupiter, we are seeing an object that is 487 millions of miles from us. But when we look at the bright Orion, or the Great Bear, we are beholding substances which are ten thousand times that remoteness from us. The idea frequently overwhelms me, as I stand and view them, and think that I, a petty human being, have the faculty, and can exercise the power, of looking through millions of millions of miles of extended space, and that I am at that moment actually doing so, and that such an amazing expanse is visible to my eye, and perceptible by my conscious, though, in comparison, insignificant soul.—*The Sacred History of the World.*



THE NEW ZEALANDERS.

In general, the New Zealanders are a tall race of men, many of the individuals belonging to the upper classes being six feet high and upwards. They are also described as strong, active, and almost uniformly well-shaped. Their hair is commonly straight, but sometimes curly: Crozet says he saw a few of them with red hair. Cook describes the females as far from attractive; but other observers give a more flattering account of them. Mr. Savage, for example, assures us that their features are regular and pleasing; and he seems to have been much struck by their "long black hair and dark penetrating eyes," as well as "their well-formed figure, the interesting cast of their countenance, and the sweet tone of their voice." Captain Cruise's testimony is almost equally favorable.

The dress of the two sexes is exactly the same, and consists of an inner mat or tunic, fastened by a girdle round their waists, and an upper cloak, which is made of very coarse materials for ordinary wear, but is of a much finer fabric, and often, indeed, elaborately ornamented, when intended for occasions of display. Both these articles of attire are always made of the native flax. The New Zealanders wear no covering either for the head or the feet, the feathers with which both sexes ornament the head being excepted.

The food upon which they principally live is the root of the fern-plant, which grows all over the country. This root, sometimes swallowed entirely,

and sometimes only masticated, and the fibres rejected after the juice has been extracted, serves the New Zealanders not only for bread, but even occasionally for a meal by itself. When fish are used, they do not appear, as in many other countries, to be eaten raw, but are always cooked, either by being fixed upon a stick stuck in the ground, and so exposed to the fire, or by being folded in green leaves, and then laid between heated stones to bake. But little of any other animal food is consumed, birds being killed chiefly for their feathers, and pigs being only produced on days of special festivity. The first pigs were left in New Zealand by Captain Cook, who made many attempts to stock the country both with this and other useful animals, most of whom, however, were so much neglected that they soon disappeared.

Cook likewise introduced the potato into New Zealand; and that valuable root appears to be now pretty generally cultivated throughout the northern island. The only agricultural implements, however, which the natives possess are of the rudest description; that with which they dig their potatoes being merely a wooden pole, with a cross-bar of the same material fixed to it about three feet from the ground. Mr. Marsden saw the wives of several of the chiefs toiling hard in the fields with no better spade than this; among others the head wife of the great Shunghie, who, although quite blind, appeared to dig the ground, he says, as fast as those who had their sight, and as well, first pulling up the weeds as she went along with her hands, then setting her feet upon them that she might know where they were; and, finally, after she had broken the soil, throwing the mould over the weeds with her hands.

From the New York Knickerbocker.

THE PRAIRIES.

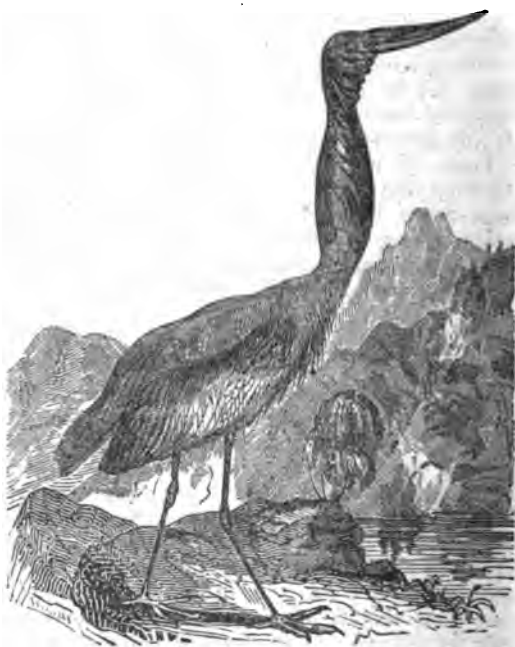
BY WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

These are the gardens of the desert, these
The boundless unshorn fields, where lingers yet
The beauty of the earth ere man had sinned;
The prairies. I behold them for the first,
And my heart swells, while the delighted sight
Takes in the encircling vastness. Lo! they stretch
In airy undulations, far away,
As if an ocean in its gentlest swell
Stood still, with all its rounded billows fixed
And motionless forever. Motionless?
No, they are all unchained again. The clouds
Sweep over with their shadows, and beneath
The surface rolls and fluctuates to the eye;
Dark hollows seem to glide along and chase
The sunny ridges. Breezes of the South!
Who toss the golden and the flame-like flowers,
And pass the prairie-hawk, that, poised on high,
Flaps his broad wings, yet moves not—ye have played
Among the palms of Mexico, and vines
Of Texas, and have crisped the limpid brooks
That from the fountains of Sonora glide
Into the calm Pacific—have ye fanned
A nobler or a lovelier scene than this?
Man hath no part in all this glorious work:
The hand that built the firmament hath heaved
And smoothed these verdant swells, and sown their
slopes

With herbage, planted them with island groves,
And hedged them round with forests. Fitting floor
For this magnificent temple of the sky—

With flowers whose glory and whose multitude
Rival the constellations! The great Heavens
Seem to stoop down upon the scene in love;
A nearer vault, and of a tenderer blue,
Than that which bends above the eastern hills.

Still this great solitude is quick with life,
Myriads of insects, gaudy as the flowers
They flutter over, gentle quadrupeds,
And birds that scarce have learned the fear of man,
Are here, and sliding reptiles of the ground,
Startlingly beautiful. The graceful deer
Bounds to the wood at my approach. The bee,
A more adventurous colonist than man,
With whom he came across the eastern deep,
Fill the savannas with his murmurings,
And hide his sweets, as in the golden age,
Within the hollow oak. I listen long
To his domestic hum, and think I hear
The sound of that advancing multitude
Which soon shall fill these deserts. From the ground
Comes up the laugh of children, the soft voice
Of maidens, and the sweet and solemn hymn
Of Sabbath worshippers. The low of herds
Blends with the rustling of the heavy grain
Over the dark brown furrows. All at once
A fresher breeze sweeps by, and breaks my dream,
And I am in the wilderness alone.



THE JABIRU.

The South American Jabiru is more than four feet high, and is six in length from the tip of the beak to that of the claws. It has a large black bill above thirteen inches long, and three in thickness at the base. The head and most of the neck of this bird are covered with a black and naked skin, thinly scattered with a few gray hairs. The general color of the plumage is white, but about the lower part of the neck is a large band of beautiful red. In the rainy season the Jabiru grows fat, and the natives consider it at that time excellent eating. These birds live in flocks, building their nests in trees hanging over the water and laying two eggs. They feed chiefly on fish.

A YOUNG POET'S OWN EPITAPH.

A few weeks before John Keats died of decline, at Rome, a gentleman, who was sitting by his bedside, spoke of an inscription to his memory. Keats desired that there should be no mention of his name or country. "If there be any thing," he said, "let it be, *Here lies the body of one whose name was writ in water.*"

ITALIAN BANDITTI.

The banditti of Italy are what the forest outlaws of England were in the days of Robin Hood. They are not of the poorest or the vilest of the inhabitants. They generally possess a little field and a house, whither they retire at certain seasons, and only take the field when the hopes of plunder allure them, or the fear of a stronger arm drives them to the woods and rocks. They live under various chiefs, who, while their reign lasts, are absolute; but as they are freely chosen, they are as freely deposed, or sometimes murdered, if they offend their subjects.

Many of the stories of the Roman and Neapolitan banditti are far from being of a tragical nature. The brigands were often facetious and full of frolicsome tricks at the not very serious expense of those they waylaid, while at times they were the butts and victims to those who fell in with them.

Mac Farlane relates that as Lady B—— was travelling from Rome to Naples, with rather a numerous suite, she "fell among thieves." The robbers "had a tolerably good booty, but there was one excellent laugh against them. Her ladyship's medical attendant had a large medicine chest in the carriage; this was immediately broken open by the robbers, who thought the neat and strong mahogany cases must contain jewels or other valuables. They were disappointed and somewhat puzzled, when they found a number of square crystal bottles. Two of the robbers took out each one of these bottles, whose medical contents were bright, and liquid—the one like rosano, the other like maras-china di Zara. The two robbers concluded at once they were nothing else than these favorite liqueurs, or some foreign cordial of a similar nature and excellence; and anxious for the first draught, each put his bottle to his mouth, and did not withdraw it until he had taken a hearty swig. Then, indeed, the bottles were withdrawn and dashed, with curses to the earth; and the two rogues, with terror in their countenances, threw themselves on the doctor, in the same breath, threatening to kill him, and begging to know whether they were poisoned, and he could cure them? The worthy practitioner, who was an Irishman, and as such fond of a joke, would have had here a good opportunity of indulging in one, by making the trembling fellows believe for a while that they had swallowed some infernal poison, worse than the *acqua tophana*; but under circumstances, and in the presence of armed banditti, he thought it more prudent to tell them that they had only swallowed a little medicine, which could do them no harm, however badly it might taste; and to reserve his laugh at them for taking his physic for sweet waters till a more convenient opportunity.

"In the next little anecdote," says Mac Farlane, "another brigand of another band cut a still more ridiculous figure. My friend Mr. W——, a merchant of Naples, was travelling post with a Swiss merchant, and had nearly reached the city of Capua, which is only about fourteen miles from Naples, when his carriage was suddenly stopped. It was night, but a beautiful moon—the moon of Naples, which, as the witty Marchese Caraccioli used to say, was worth a London sun, illuminated the scene, and allowed W—— to see that there were only three or four brigands near the coach, and that they had not yet knocked the postilion off the



horses. W—— took his measures accordingly with great presence of mind and boldness. As the foremost brigand came to the side of the carriage, within reach, bawling and cursing for those within to come out and be robbed, he caught hold of the ruffian by the breasts of his jacket, and called out to the postilion to gallop off for Capua, where he should be well rewarded. The postilion, who had known him before on the road, took W—— at his word, and, with a boldness rarely found in his class, whipped his horses, that went off, (as Neapolitan horses generally will do,) 'an end.' As the postilion's whip touched the withers of his steeds, a bullet whizzed past his head, but missed its aim. Away then went the carriage and the merchants and the robber as swift as the old witches in Goethe's *Faustus*; W——, who was a robust man, keeping a firm hold of the robber, who dangled,—his head and shoulders in, and the rest of his body outside of the vehicle,—like a lamb or a calf over a butcher's cart. W——'s companion occasionally assisted him. After numerous but vain struggles to extricate himself from their grasp, the captured brigand, whose legs were bruised in the cruellest manner against the rapid carriage wheels, and his breath almost bumped out of his body, protested it was all a mistake, and begged most pitifully to be released. The merchants, however, kept the prize they had made in so curious a manner, and soon arrived at Capua. This being a fortified town, most awkwardly for travellers, placed on the high road, they had to wait some time until a letter was sent to the commandant, and permission obtained to admit them. When the drawbridge was lowered, they rolled over it, with the robber still dangling at the coachside, and delivered him at the guard-house. The next morning the merchants appeared before the justice of peace, and after their depositions had been received, the brig-

and was given over to the civil authorities, and cast into prison, where he lay for many months without being brought to judgment. What finally became of him I know not; but I remember very well, that my friend W——, though he was rather proud of the novel exploit, had so much trouble in consequence of it, and the somewhat peculiar course of Neapolitan justice, that he used often to wish he had left the fellow in the road."

One of the boldest deeds of resistance to the brigands was performed by a major of Murat's staff, a native of one of the German cantons of Switzerland. His name was Vollf. This officer was travelling post from Naples to Rome with despatches, in a little low, open caleche; he had not even a servant with him. In the Pontine Marshes he was stopped by six sturdy and well-armed brigands. Expecting no resistance from a single man, the robbers stood by the door of the carriage, uttering tremendous curses and commanding him to descend. This he presently did; but as he left his seat he grasped a ready brace of pistols and crossed his arms under his military cloak; and as he touched the ground he pressed a trigger on either side of him, and two of the brigands, who were almost in contact with his person, fell dead by the carriage. His sabre was as ready as his pistols—with it he cleft the head of one robber who fell, and wounded another, who then, with his two unhurt but terrified companions, took to flight, and left the officer master of the field.

ON THE DUTIES AND ADVANTAGES OF SOCIETY.

If people always knew and kept in mind the obligations they are under to society, they would be much better members of it, and much happier in every respect. Robinson Crusoe, on the desert island, before he got his man "Friday," is a picture of solitude which every body knows. But the picture of solitude there given, though it be pleasantly painted, is far from being true. All the arts, stratagems, and contrivances which Crusoe puts in execution, are derived from society. Crusoe is not a solitary, nor even a savage; and though his means of gratification are different, his desires are just the same as if he had been all the time in a civilized land.

We who have lived all our time in society, can form no notion of what a wretched and destitute creature man would be if he were alone, and had never profited by the aid, the instruction, or the example of others. But it is certain, that the very humblest individual in the country—he who knows the least and fares the worst—owes far more to society than he does to himself. The good institutions, and all that is excellent in society, are the result of the labors of the wise and the good through many ages,—from the very beginning of civilization indeed; for nations are the scholars and imitators of nations, just as men are the scholars and imitators of men.

Thus, when we reflect duly, we discover that every man who earns his bread in society, is indebted to society for it. Take a man who digs the ground:—how did he find out that digging the ground would make it more fertile? Where did he obtain a spade? Who taught him how to use it? Who instructed him as to the roots which it is best to plant, and the seeds which it is best to sow; or who told him the times at which the planting and

the sowing could be done to the greatest advantage? Certainly not himself; for before any man could have found out the way and the time of doing the very simplest thing that the humblest laborer has occasion to do, the term of his life would have been out, and he would have been in his grave. Indeed his term would have been but short, for he would have died of hunger before he had been long in existence.

This debt to society is not confined to those in humble life; for the higher the station, the debt is the greater; because all civilization, all knowledge, and all enjoyment, except those which man has in common with the beasts, had their origin in society, and were by society brought to the condition in which we find them. We are, in fact, debtors to society for the wisdom and the improvements of more ages than we have years to spend in it. That wisdom and those improvements are talents committed to our care, and if we do not hand them down to the generation which is to come after us, in a more valuable condition than we ourselves received them in, we are shamefully ungrateful to our fathers, and cruelly unjust to our children.

The common boast of a rich man that, "he can pay his way, and is obliged to nobody," is a very silly boast; for the man is a debtor to others for all that he possesses; and of course the larger his possessions are, the more he is in debt. That debt is, however, due only to society generally; and therefore no individual member of society is entitled to ask payment of it. It is not a debt which can be paid with money. It must be paid in conduct; and in doing those particular duties which belong to his station.

In like manner, the man who is destitute, who possesses nothing, and has nothing to do, is not independent of society, for to society he is indebted for his very powers of doing; and if he has had opportunities of turning those powers to account, and has neglected them, he is more deeply and more criminally a debtor. However wretched he may feel, or may be in reality, he is still much better than if he were not in society; for then he would be without the abilities of doing; whereas, the very worst that can happen in society, is being without the opportunity or the will of turning those abilities to account. It is not always very easy to distinguish between the want of opportunity and the want of will, because there is a will to find opportunity, as well as a will to improve it, when it is known: and in both cases, the proverb, "where there is a will there is a way," holds true.

THE ACTING OF CHILDREN.

The acting of children in adult characters is of very ancient date. Labathiel Pavy, a boy who died in his thirteenth year, was so admirable an actor of old men, that Ben Jonson in his elegant epitaph on him, says, the fates *thought him one*, and therefore cut the thread of life. This boy acted in "Cynthia's Revels" and "The Poetaster," in 1600 and 1601, in which year he probably died. The poet speaks of him with interest and affection.

Weep with me all you that read
This little story;
And know for whom a tear you shed
Death's self is sorry.

"T was a child that did so thrive
In grace and feature,
That heaven and nature seemed to strive
Which owned the creature.

Years be numbered scarce thirteen,
When fates turned cruel,
Yet three filled Zodiacs had he been
The stage's jewel.

And did act, what now we moan,
Old men so duly,
As sooth, the Parcs thought him one,
He played so truly.



LAPLAND SKATE RUNNERS.

The Laplanders are a quiet, good sort of people. As they never steal, locks and bolts are not used among them. You may leave any thing in the open air, safely. They are not quarrelsome, and though the men carry knives in their belts, they never stab each other. I observed, however, that several of them understood kicking and pulling hair tolerably well.

The Laplanders do not make brave soldiers, but they bear the cold, heat, hunger and fatigue, with great patience. They are seldom troubled with any disease but the rheumatism, or something of that kind. For any pain in the limb, they put on fire, and raise a blister. For all the other complaints, they drink brandy and pepper, or brandy and gunpowder. This is a terrible dose, to be sure; but it always cures them, they say. They never take cold. Blindness is common among them, owing perhaps, to the glare of the snow, or their smoky tents.

Drunkenness is their chief fault. I knew one family to drink a barrel of brandy in four months. They buy it of the merchants. If a Laplander earns twenty dollars by fishing, he will perhaps buy a few dollars worth of cloth, and drink out the rest during the week. These people never refuse brandy. I had some with me, that was very strong; they made wry faces at drinking it, but always wanted more.

By the 10th of October, the country is covered with snow. At this season the bears are troublesome. They come out from their lurking places, and if they can find a horse or a cow, they kill and drag it to some den or cavern, and live upon it during the winter. The Laplanders use the rifle in hunting bears. Their powder is coarse; and the bullet is no bigger than a pea. The hunter must get pretty near to his game, therefore; which makes it dangerous work to pursue these animals. Of course, a Laplander is proud of killing one. The people say, the bear has ten men's strength, and twelve men's sense; and they think it understands their speech. I once knew a Laplander to chase

a bear to shoot at him; his rifle missed fire. The bear turned round, and was about to spring upon the man. "You ought to be ashamed, you great rascal," said the hunter, "to bite a man with a poor rifle." Whether the bear thought this remark reasonable, or was frightened, I do not know but he ran away, and gave the hunter no more alarm.

As soon as the snow comes, and the surface is glazed and hard with a few days' cold, the Laplander puts on his snow-skates. These are made of wood, and are very narrow, but seven feet long, or more. They travel upon them with such speed, over mountains and rivers, and through the woods, night and day, that in old ignorant times, travellers took them for goblins. They chase the reindeer with them; and in deep snow, where the deer breaks through with his sharp hoofs, they often overtake him. They will go fifty miles in a day. They find it rather hard work to climb mountains on their skates; but coming down is easy enough. They place themselves in a crouching posture, with their knees bent, and body inclined backward, holding only a staff.

ABBREVIATIONS AND SIGNS.

Abbreviations and Signs, are generally used to express in small, that which is in itself large, or in short, that which is in itself long. In this way we have London on a pocket handkerchief, England on a bit of paper, or the whole surface of the earth and all the stars in the heavens, on the surface of two little globes, a foot or eighteen inches in diameter. So also we have the whole history of the world in a small book, which we can carry in our pocket; or the principal events in a table, which we can examine at a glance.

The words of language, to which we owe so much of our knowledge and enjoyment, are nothing but signs and abbreviations. It would take years to know and months to tell, in detail, all that we mean by the short word "*man*;" and yet we understand it whenever we hear it spoken or see it written.

The abbreviations and signs of speech are common to us all, learned and unlearned. But there are particular abbreviations and signs, belonging to particular branches of knowledge, or science; and these, though they are of very great advantage to those who do know them, are puzzling to those who do not, just in the same manner as a man who knows no language but French is puzzled with English.

Those signs are the Alphabets of the sciences, just as letters are the alphabets of languages; and it is just as impossible for any one to know the science without first knowing its alphabet, as it is for any one to be able to read a book without knowing the A, B, C. Learning the A, B, C, is knowing the sound of the letters,—that is, the connexion or relation between words that are *heard* and words that are only *seen*. There is no natural relation between seeing and hearing; and therefore the A, B, C, is arbitrary, or just what they who use it choose to make it,—consequently every body must be taught it.

It is nearly the same with what may be called the "alphabets" of all the sciences; and in science, as well as in language, we very soon learn to read and understand, when we once know our A,

B, C, or letters. The learning of their letters being the first and humblest lesson of children at school, persons who are farther advanced in life think it beneath them to learn alphabets; and, from that silly prejudice, they remain ignorant of the sciences to which those alphabets are the keys.

Yet those alphabets are the most wonderful of human contrivances. The steam engine and gas light are mere trifles compared with the A, B, C.

The figures 1, 2, 3, &c. which are the alphabet of numbers, are very curious; and enable us to do that in so many seconds, which, if we had no such contrivance, we could not do in as many centuries. The distance of the sun from the earth is about 190 millions of half miles, and half a mile is about a thousand paces; five miles an hour is fast walking, and the paces then are as fast as one can count distinctly. At that rate, though the first man had begun the journey, or the counting, at the moment of his creation, and he and his posterity continued at it twelve hours every day, it would have been more than 200 years after the birth of Christ before they had finished the task. By means of the alphabet of numbers, any body can do it as fast as three 0's can be written. The half miles are 190,000,000; the paces in half a mile 1000: we have only to add three 0's to the first of these, and we have the whole number of paces,—190,000,000,000.

The alphabet of numbers does not, however, express the relations of numbers, and so we must have other signs for these; and, as the figures which stand for the names of numbers are different from the words, or names, which are the names of things, there are also different signs for the principal relations of numbers. But as the value of every thing that can be valued is reckoned in numbers, the relations of numbers are of very general use; and as the signs of those relations are the shortest means of expressing them, every body should be acquainted with them.

These signs are sometimes called "*Algebraical*" signs, and the name is far from being an improper one. "*Al*" means "the," and "*jabr*" means "to consolidate," or bring together into little space, so that the whole may be seen at once; and thus "*Algebra*" means "the expressing of the greatest meaning by the fewest signs."

ANECDOTES OF INSECTS.

The grubs of some two winged flies and of wasps, bees, ants, and ichneumon flies, do not change their skins; but spiders and other allied tribes though they exhibit no other appearance of larvæ, moult frequently during their growth. Goldsmith, among other curious mistatements respecting a house-spider which he himself observed, asserts that it "lived three years, every year it changed its skin, and got a new set of legs: I have sometimes plucked off a limb, which grew again in two or three days." The fact is, that few spiders live one year, much less three; and all their changes of skin are gone through in a few months, and their acquiring new legs for mutilated ones takes some weeks. It is probable, indeed, that Goldsmith never thought of ascertaining the identity of this spider; if the whole story be not a mere fancy, like his assertion that spiders, "when they walk upon such bodies as are perfectly smooth, as looking-glass or polished marble, squeeze a little sponge which grows near the extremity of their claws, and thus diffusing a glutinous substance, adhere to the

surface till they make a second step." Neither spiders nor any insects with which we are acquainted can thus produce gum from their feet to aid them in walking upon glass, though the house-fly can walk thus by causing a vacuum between its feet and the glass, as we shall subsequently describe at length. But the spider and all caterpillars can only climb in such cases by constructing a ladder of ropes, as is represented by Rösse in the instance of the goat moth caterpillar.



Goat moth caterpillar escaping from a drinking glass, by spinning a ladder of silken ropes

One of these caterpillars, which we possessed, made its escape in a manner much more unexpected, if not so ingenious, by means of its great muscular power, in which, it is not a little singular, that insects, as Baron Haller remarks, appear to excel in proportion to their diminutiveness. Of this we have a remarkable example in the common flea, which can draw seventy or eighty times its own weight. The muscular strength of this agile creature enables it not only to resist the ordinary pressure of the fingers in our endeavors to crush it, but to take leaps to the distance of two hundred times its own length; which will appear more surprising when we consider that a man, to equal the agility of a flea, should be able to leap between three and four hundred yards. The flea, however, is excelled in leaping by the cuckoo-spit frog-hopper, which will sometimes leap two or three yards, that is, more than two hundred and fifty times its own length; as if, (to continue the comparison) a man of ordinary stature should vault through the air to the distance of a quarter of a mile.

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(See page 194.)

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE present volume of the *PEOPLE'S MAGAZINE*, which will be completed by the next number, was commenced as an experiment. The unqualified approbation it has every where received, and the large list of subscribers it has already obtained, induce the Publishers to continue their efforts to make the work what they intended from the first—a permanent *family magazine*,—one, too, which shall be still more worthy of the high character it sustains. In pursuance of this determination, they will withhold no pains or expense. They have already secured such aid in the editorial department, as they deem necessary to the accomplishment of their purpose.

The great object of the *People's Magazine*, then, is to convey *useful instruction*, in plain and familiar, but chaste language, and in the *cheapest possible form*, to every cottage and fireside in the land. There are few families to be found, who cannot afford to spend one dollar a year, for a visiter, twice a month, which shall give them valuable information and advice, on subjects connected with their usefulness and happiness—which, while it shall not fail to *interest* and *amuse*, shall have still higher and nobler purposes in view—the improvement of the *mind*, and the cultivation of the *heart*.

Natural History will continue to receive, as it deserves, a considerable share of our attention. This science embraces many more topics than at first view might be supposed. Whatever relates to the character, nature, or internal structure of *men*, *animals*, and *things*, is properly a subject of natural history.

But we shall not confine ourselves wholly to the animal, the vegetable and the mineral kingdoms of

nature. We shall launch out, often, into *history*, *arts*, *manufactures*, &c. The pages of history are full of instruction. *Biography* will also be deemed an appropriate subject. In short, nothing which is calculated to benefit the minds and hearts of our readers, will be intentionally excluded.

We do not expect, in a semi-monthly magazine, to present all the important intelligence of the day, but only such as may be deemed of permanent value, as a matter of record. Even this will sometimes appear late. But delay has its advantages. Much mischief has been done, and many unnecessary pangs inflicted, by an injudicious eagerness to circulate early intelligence. Every one will recollect instances, where the public press has in this way widely circulated false statements. These evils the *People's Magazine* will endeavor to avoid.

Engravings of a superior character will continue to be furnished; but while we labor, in this way, to render the work attractive, we intend much more. We believe that good engravings may be made to do something more than to amuse, or even illustrate. We believe they may be made to cultivate the mind, chasten the imagination, develope taste, and benefit the heart. Shall the teachers of vice find engravings an important aid in accomplishing unworthy ends—in vitiating the taste and imagination—and shall the teachers of virtue neglect to turn them to a good account, in the *promotion of human happiness*?

Such of our patrons as have not already engaged the *People's Magazine* for the coming year, will recollect that the terms are, one dollar in advance, to be sent without charge to the publishers. Six copies sent to one address, for five dollars paid. To accommodate schools, or companies, ten copies will be sent to any one address, *postage free*, for ten dollars, sent without expense to the publishers.



MANNER OF EATING AMONG THE ANCIENTS.

In ancient times, it was the custom, among the patriarchs and others, frequently to take their meals out of doors. We meet with many instances of this in the gospels, and it is usual among eastern nations in the present day. The regular meals were, dinner a little before noon, and supper in the evening. The latter was the principal meal. The feast of the passover was in the evening.

The Hebrews did not eat with the neighboring nations: we are not told in the Bible when they began to separate themselves in this manner; but it was their custom in Joseph's time, although in that instance it appears to have arisen from objections on the part of the Egyptians. The Jews in our Saviour's time did not eat with the Samaritans, and they objected to our Lord's eating with publicans and sinners. This custom was so strictly observed, that when the Lord was about to extend his church to the Gentiles, he sent an especial vision to St. Peter, to show that it might be discontinued. Peter was blamed by the other apostles for eating with Cornelius, and from several passages in the epistles, we find that the early Christians abstained from meat offered unto idols. As these sacrifices were offered at all solemn feasts, and on many occasions of less importance, they were thereby separate from eating with the heathens in general.

It was usual in ancient times, and is still the custom in China, Persia, and many other countries, for one or more of the guests to have a little table or tray placed on the floor, upon which dishes are set separately for them. In India, many persons never eat out of the same dish as others, believing that it would be sinful to do so, and thinking that their dishes, &c. are polluted and spoiled if touched by persons of another religion. If so touched, they break them, as the Jews were to break their earthen vessels when touched by an unclean animal. This assists in explaining the apostle's words: "Touch not, taste not, handle not." Dr. Clark found similar customs among the Turks. He was one night entertained very kindly by a Turk and his family; after leaving the place, the next morning, Dr. C. returned for a book he had left behind, when he found his kind host and all the family employed in breaking and throwing away the earthen-ware plates and dishes, from which his guests had eaten, and purifying the other utensils and articles of furniture by passing them through fire or water.

Elkanah, the father of Samuel, distributed portions of provision to each of his wives separately. It is still the custom in all countries of the east, when there is more than one wife, for each to be separate, as much as the master of the family can afford. When entertaining strangers, as well in

eating and drinking in general, there appears to have been great plenty, but not much care or delicacy in preparing the provision. It was deemed a mark of favor to send the guests a great deal of any dish; thus the mess or portion which Joseph sent to Benjamin was five times greater than was sent to any other of his brethren. It is an honor to receive any portion from the table of the master of the feast, if he is a great man. A modern traveller, who dined in the presence of an eastern king, describes his majesty as tearing a handful of meat from a quarter of lamb, which stood before him, and sending it to his guest as a mark of honor. This custom also prevails in China. Van Braam, the Dutch ambassador, relates that some bones of mutton, with half the meat gnawed off, were sent to him from the table of the emperor, and he was told it was a great honor! Knives and forks never have been used in the east as among us.

THE PET MONKEY AND THE SHIP'S CREW.

I need not dwell on the common-place tricks of a nautical monkey, (observes Captain HALL), as they must be well known to every one; such as catching hold of the end of the sail makers' ball of twine, and paying the whole everboard, hand over hand, from a secure station in the rigging; or his stealing the boatswain's silver call, and letting it drop from the end of the cathead: or his getting into one of the cabin ports, and tearing up the captain's letters, a trick at which even the stately skipper is obliged to laugh.

One of our monkey's grand amusements was to watch some one arranging his clothes in his bag. After the stowage was completed, and every thing put carefully away, he would steal round, untie the strings, and, having opened the mouth of the bag, would draw forth in succession every article of dress, first smell of it, then turn it over and over, and lastly, fling it away on the wet deck. It was amusing enough to observe that, all the while he was committing any piece of mischief, he appeared not only to be under the fullest consciousness of guilt, but living under the perfect certainty that he was earning a good sound drubbing for his pains. Still, the pleasure of doing wrong was so strong and habitual within him, that he seemed utterly incapable of resisting the temptation whenever it fell in his way. When occupied in these misdeeds, he continued alternately chattering with terror, and screaming with delight at his own ingenuity, till the enraged owner of the property burst in upon him, hardly more angry with Jacko than with his malicious mesmates, who, instead of preventing, rather encouraged the pillage.

All this was innocent, however, compared to the tricks which the blue jackets taught him to play upon the jolly marines. How they set about this laudable piece of instruction, I know not: but the antipathy which they established in Jacko's breast against the red coats was something far beyond ordinary prejudice, and in its consequences partook more of the interminable war between cat and dog.

The monkey, who entered with all the zeal of a hot partisan into the designs of the blues, showed no mercy to the red faction, against whom he had not, in fact, the slightest shadow of a real quarrel. As that trifling circumstance, however, seemed, as in graver cases of quarrel, only to aggravate the hostility, every new day brought a new mode of

attack upon the unhappy soldiers, who were never safe. At first he merely chattered, or grinned contemptuously at them; or, at worst, snapped up his heels, soiled their fine pipe-clayed trousers, or pulled the cartridges out of their cartouch-boxes, and scattered the powder over the decks, feats for which his back was sure to smart under the ratan of the indignant sergeant, to whom the "party" made their complaint. Upon these occasions, the sailors laughed so heartily at their friend Jacko, as he placed his hands behind him, and, in an agony of rage and pain, rubbed the wounded part, smarting under the sergeant's chastisement, that, if he could only have reasoned the matter like a statesman, he would soon have distrusted his advantage in this offensive, but not defensive, alliance with the Johnnies against the Jollies. Sometimes, indeed, he appeared to be quite sensible of his absurd position, oaned by his enemy and ridiculed by his friends, in whose cause he was suffering. On these occasions he often made a run, open-mouthed, at the sailors; in return for which mutinous proceeding he was sure to get a smart rap over the nose from his own party, which more than counterpoised the anguish at the other extremity of his person, giving ludicrous occupation to both his hands, and redoubling the shouts of laughter at his expense. In short, poor St. Jago literally got what is currently called monkey's allowance, viz. "more kicks than halfpence."

In process of time, as Mr. Monkey, by dint of that bitter monitor, experience, gained higher knowledge in the art of marine warfare and ship diplomacy, he became much more formidable in his attacks on the "corps," and generally contrived to keep himself well beyond the reach of the sergeant's merciless ratan. One of the favorite pranks of the sailors was to place him near the break of the fore-castle, with a handspike, taken from the bow-chaser gun, in his paws. It was quite as much as he could carry, and far more than he could use as a missile against the royals; but he was soon instructed in a method of employing it, which always grievously annoyed the enemy. Theoretically speaking, I presume poor Jacko knew no more of the laws of gravitation, when applying it to the annoyance of the marines, than his friends the seamen did of centrifugal action, when swinging round the hand-lead to gain soundings by pitching it far forward into the water; but without such scientific knowledge, both the monkey and his wicked associates knew very well that if a handspike were held across the top of the fore-castle ladder, and let go when a person was about half way down it, the heels of the said individual would be sure to bring up or stop the bar. The unhappy marine, therefore, who happened to be descending the steps when Jacko let his handspike fall, generally got the skin taken off his heels, or his instep, according as his rear or his front was turned towards the foe. The instant Jacko let go his hold and the law of gravitation began to act, so that the handspike was heard to rattle down the ladder, off he jumped to the bow of the barge, overlooking the spot, and there sat, with his neck stretched out, his eyes starting from his head, and his lips drawn back, till his teeth, displayed from ear to ear, rapped against one another like a pair of castanets in a bolero, under the influence of the most ecstatic alarm, curiously mixed up with the joy of complete success. The poor wounded Gulpin, in the meantime, rubbed his ankles, as

he fired off a volley of imprecations, the only effect of which was to increase the number of his audience, grinning and laughing in chorus with the terrified mischief-monger.



ANCIENT BRITISH COSTUME.

After the conquest of England by the Romans, the Britons seem to have adopted the costume of their subduers with considerable taste and dexterity. A kind of mantle, in the fashion of a Scottish plaid, took the place of the cloak of skins, which it somewhat resembled in shape.

This, by no means inelegant, drapery, was fastened on the shoulder by a clasp, either of gems or of plain metal, or perhaps only by a small wooden skewer—according to the rank of the wearer. Beneath this mantle was a vest, or tunic, with sleeves reaching either to the wrist or elbow. A sort of trouser completed the costume; but we do not find any trace of shoes, nor even of buskins. The feet were usually bare, or covered only with a rough piece of skin.

IRON.

In few instances do we perceive the concern of Providence for the wants of mortals more fully exemplified, than in the abundant distribution of this substance over the face of the earth, not only in a metallic state, but also in an infinite variety of combinations: from which source are derived many articles of almost indispensable use in our arts and manufactures, as plumbago, commonly called black-lead, (a combination of iron with charcoal,) Prussian blue, green vitriol, &c.; but at present we must only take into consideration the simple metal.

Iron is seldom found in a pure metallic state; but its ores are diffused throughout nature in greater abundance than those of other metals, oftentimes combined with them, and sometimes in the state of an oxide, i. e. rust. In this state occurs the Swedish iron ore, which produces such excellent metal. In order to reduce the ore into cast-iron, in some manufactories, it is broken into small pieces, and mixed with lime, or some substance capable of promoting its fusion. It is then thrown into the furnace, together with a quantity of coke or charcoal; where, after being submitted

for some time to a most intense heat, the reduced metal descends through the fuel, and collects at the bottom, whence it is let out, and forms pigs of cast-iron. In this state it is employed in the fabrication of various kinds of machinery and utensils.

Cast-iron acquires carbon from the charcoal or coke used in its reduction, and originally contains oxygen and other adventitious substances, which cause its brittleness and render it fusible, though with some difficulty. In order to deprive it of these, it is kept in a state of fusion for a considerable time, and repeatedly stirred; during which process, the carbon and oxygen uniting, pass off in the state of carbonic-acid gas or fixed air. At length, having become thick, it is taken from the furnace, and submitted to the action of the hammer, or the regular pressure of large steel rollers, by which the remaining impurities are forced out, and the metal is rendered malleable, ductile, and nearly infusible. Iron in this state is called bar or wrought iron.

Iron, by the above process, being divested of charcoal, must again absorb a small portion of pure carbon, in order to be converted into steel. This is effected by submitting good iron to an intense heat, for several hours, in conjunction with carbonaceous matter, such as charcoal, carbonate of lime, &c. Good steel contains about one part of carbon in two hundred of iron.

It may be remarked, that, of the metals in common use, (platinum excepted) iron alone possesses the property of welding. Innumerable are the advantages which we derive from this peculiar quality, by which, without fusion, merely by heating, iron is moulded into the variety of forms in which it is every where exhibited to our view. Iron possesses likewise the property of being attracted by the magnet, and of becoming itself magnetic. To this property we are indebted for the mariner's compass—an instrument, by which man is enabled to steer his course towards any part of the globe, with the greatest accuracy and certainty.

Contrary to the prejudiced opinion of the ancients, who supposed that iron was poisonous, and that wounds, inflicted with instruments made of this metal, healed with difficulty, it seems that its effects on the animal economy are very beneficial, both in medicinal preparations, and in its state of natural solution in chalybeate waters. Indeed, of all metals, this is the most important; since there is no other, wherein are contained, at the same time, so many useful properties; none which can be applied to such a variety of uses; and, finally, none which exists in such abundance, or in so many different states, for it pervades all nature, is found in vegetables, and even in animal fluids.

It may not be improper to state here, that the article, known in commerce by the name of *tinned plate*, is not tin, as some suppose, but iron plates, which, having undergone certain chemical preparations, are immersed in melted tin, which not only adheres to the surface, but even partly penetrates the plate, and gives it a very brilliant appearance.

OF THE GENEROSITY OF THE LION.

Of late years, the truth of the accounts, which have been so long current, respecting the generous disposition of the Lion, have been called in question. Several travellers, in their accounts of Asia and Africa, describe him as of a more rapacious and sanguinary disposition than had formerly been

supposed, although few of them have had the opportunity to make him a particular object of their attention. A circumstance that occurred not long since in Vienna, seems, however, to confirm the more ancient accounts.

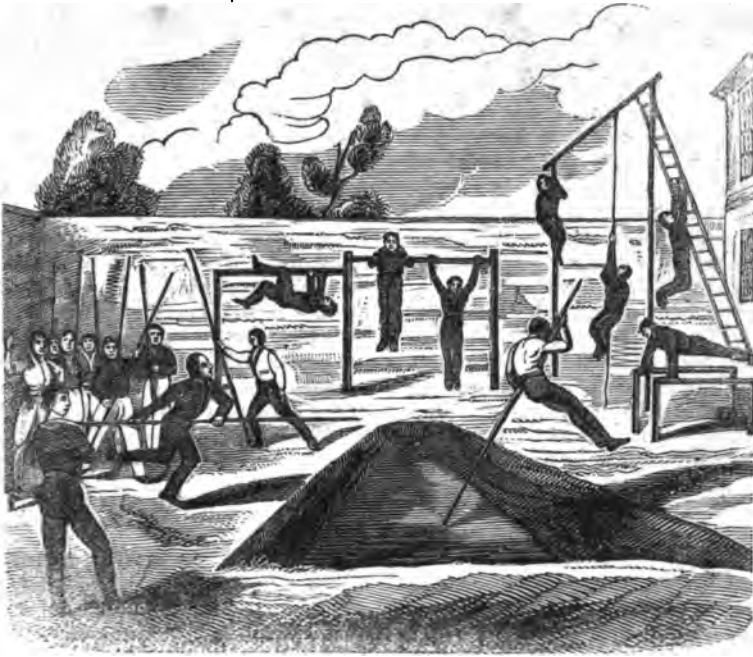
In the year 1791, at which period the custom of baiting wild beasts still existed in that city, a combat was to be exhibited between a Lion and a number of



large dogs. As soon as the noble animal made his appearance, four large bull-dogs were turned loose upon him; three of which, however, as soon as they came near him, took fright and ran away. One only had courage to remain, and make the attack. The Lion, however, without rising from the ground upon which he was lying, showed him, by a single stroke with his paw, how greatly he was his superior in strength; for the dog was instantly stretched motionless on the ground. The Lion drew him towards him, and laid his fore-paws upon him in such a manner, that only a small part of his body could be seen. Every one imagined that the dog was dead, and that the Lion would soon rise and devour him. But they were mistaken. The dog began to move, and struggled to get loose, which the Lion permitted him to do. He seemed merely to have warned him not to meddle with him again. But when the dog attempted to run away, and had already got over half the enclosure, the Lion's indignation seemed to be excited. He sprang from the ground, and in two leaps reached the fugitive, who had just got as far as the paling, and was whining to have it opened for him to escape. The enraged and flying animal had called the instinctive propensity of the monarch of the forest into action; the defenceless enemy now excited his pity; for the generous Lion stepped a few paces backward, and looked quietly on, while a small door was opened to let the dog out of the enclosure.

This unequivocal trait of generosity moved every spectator. A shout of applause resounded throughout the assembly, who had enjoyed a satisfaction of a description far superior to what they had expected.

The Lion is said to be long lived, although the precise period of his existence is perhaps unknown. By *BUFFON*, he is limited to about twenty-five years, but it is certain that his life is of a much longer duration. The great Lion, called *Pompey* which died in the Tower, A. D. 1760, was known to have been there above seventy years, and another brought from Africa, died in the same place at the age of sixty-three.



GYMNASTICS.

A late distinguished senator said in the parliament of England, "man is born to labor as the sparks fly upwards." This observation is founded on a thorough knowledge of the destiny from which none can escape. The idle are always unhappy, nor can even mental vigor be preserved without bodily exercise. Neither he who has attained to inordinate wealth, nor he who has reached the greatest heights of human intellect is exempt from the decree, that every man must "work for his living." If the "gentleman" does not work to maintain his family, he must work to maintain his life; hence he walks, rides, hunts, shoots, and travels, and occupies his limbs as well as his mind; hence noblemen amuse themselves at the turning lathe, and the workman's bench, or become mail coachmen, or "cutter-lads;" and hence sovereigns sometimes "play at being workmen," or, what is worse, at the "game" of war.

Without exercise the body becomes enfeebled, and the mind loses its tension. Corporeal inactivity cannot be persisted in even with the aid of medicine, without symptoms of an asthenic state. From this deliquium the patient must be relieved in spite of his perverseness, or he becomes a maniac or a corpse. Partial remedies render him "a nervous man;" his only effectual relief is bodily exercise.

Exercise in the open air is indispensable, and many who walk in the wide and rapidly extending wilderness of the metropolis have sufficient; but, to some, the exercise of walking is not enough for carrying on the business of life; while others, whose avocations are sedentary, scarcely come under the denomination of sesquipedalians. These resort to stretching out the arms, kicking, hopping, what they call "jumping," running up and down a pair of stairs, sparring, or playing with the dumb bells: these substitutes may assist, but, alone, they are inadequate to the preservation of health.

Some years ago a work on gymnastics, by Salzmann, was translated from the German into English. Its precepts were unaided by example; it produced a sensation, people talked about it at the time, and

agreed that the bodily exercises it prescribed were good, but nobody took them, and gymnastics, though frequently thought upon, have not until lately been practised in London. Mr. Voelker, a native of Germany, has recently opened a gymnasium in that city.

This gentleman's prospectus of his establishment is judicious. He contends that while education has been exclusively directed to the development of the mental faculties, the bodily powers have been entirely neglected. "The intimate connexion between mind and body has not been sufficiently considered; for who does not know, from his own experience, that the mind uniformly participates in the condition of the body; that it is cheerful, when the body is strong and healthy; and depressed, when the body is languid and unhealthy?"

An inhabitant of the city need only look out of his own window to see practical illustrations of the necessity of these exercises. How often do we see a young man with an intelligent but very pale countenance, whose legs have hardly strength to support the weight of his bent and emaciated body. He once probably was a strong and active boy, but he came to the city, shut himself up in an office, took no exercise because he was not obliged to take any; grew nervous and bilious; took a great deal of medical advice and physic; took every thing in fact but the true remedy, exercise; and may probably still linger out a few years of wretched existence, when death will be welcomed as his best friend. This, though an extreme case, is a very common one, and the unfortunate beings who approximate to it in a considerable degree are still more numerous. Many of the miseries and diseases of young and old, male and female, in the city, may be traced eventually to want of exercise. Give us pure air, and we can exist with comparatively little exercise; but bad air and no exercise at all, are poisons of a very active description.

It is not easy to describe these exercises to those who have not seen them. They consist: First, Of preliminary exercises of the hand and legs, which give force and agility to those members, and

prepare the body for the other exercises. Secondly, Horizontal parallel bars, from three to five feet high, according to the size of the pupil, on which he raises his body by the arms, and swings his legs over in a variety of directions: this exercise opens the chest, and gives great strength to the muscles of the arms and body. Thirdly, The horizontal round pole supported by posts from five to eight feet high, according to the height of the performer. An endless variety of exercises may be performed on this pole, such as raising the body by the arms, going from one end to the other by the hands alone, vaulting, swinging the body over in all directions, &c. &c. Fourthly, The horse, a large wooden block shaped like the body of a horse—the pupils jump upon and over this much-enduring animal in many ways. Fifthly, Leaping in height and distance with and without poles. Sixthly, Climbing masts, ropes, and ladders of various heights. Seventhly, Throwing lances, running with celerity and for a length of time, hopping, &c. &c. It is, moreover, in our option to take whatever portion of the exercises we may find most agreeable.

The improvement which the gentlemen who practice these exercises experience in health (not to mention strength, agility, and grace,) is very considerable, and altogether wonderful in several who have entered in a feeble and sickly state. This, one would think, would be sufficient to prove that the exercises are not attended with danger. Neither is their utility necessarily confined to boyhood, as several gentlemen upwards of forty can clearly testify; nor does the pleasure of practising them depart with the novelty, but always increases with proficiency and time.



CHARLOTTE CORDAY.

This engraving represents the arrest of Charlotte Corday, the intrepid assassin of Marat, one of the sanguinary tyrants of the French Revolution. This determined female, then in her early youth, and distinguished by her personal attractions, appears to have conceived the idea of the daring deed which she afterwards accomplished, immediately on learning the proscription of the Girondists, and the victory of Robespierre and his associates in the beginning of June. Having set out from Caen in Normandy (resolved that nothing should deter her from perpetrating her purpose) she arrived in Paris on the 11th of July. On the 12th she addressed a note to her intended victim, professing to have some intelligence to communicate to him respecting those of the proscribed deputies who had made their escape and assembled in the city she had come from, which

would interest him as a lover of his country, and soliciting to be admitted to his presence.

Marat was at this time indisposed, and for the last three days had not appeared in the Convention. On the 13th, in the earlier part of the day, she presented herself at the door of his house, but was refused admittance. Leaving a second note, she retired, and came back between seven and eight o'clock in the evening in a carriage; when, after some opposition from the attendants, she was called in by order of Marat himself, whose attention had been attracted by the noise. She found the deputy in the bath. Having entered into conversation with him, she had discoursed for some minutes on the proceedings of the refugees in Normandy, when Marat remarked that in a few days he would have every man of them guillotined. The words were no sooner uttered, than, drawing forth a long knife from under her robe, the female Brutus plunged it up to the hilt in the body of him whom she believed to be the chief enemy and curse of her country.

The cries of the wounded man instantly brought his attendants into the apartment; and his murderer, seeing all chance of escape at an end, resigned herself into their hands, and was forthwith conducted to the prison of the Abbaye, amidst the shouts and execrations of a mob, consisting in great part of the vilest class of her own sex, who had assembled around the house on the rumor of what had taken place. Marat died in a few hours. Four members of the Committee of Police and as many of that of General Security immediately proceeded to interrogate Charlotte Corday respecting the crime she had committed. Her answers to some of the questions put to her by these persons depict forcibly the energetic and resolute character of the woman. She at once admitted that it was she who had slain Marat. Being asked what induced her to commit that assassination? His crimes, she boldly replied. Was it a priest who had taken the oaths to the constitution, they asked her, or one who had not, to whom you went to make confession at Caen? I went, she answered, neither to one nor the other. At another question, raising her voice with all her force, Yes, she exclaimed, I have slain one man to save a hundred thousand, a wretch to preserve those who are innocent, a ferocious beast to give repose to my country; I was a republican before the Revolution, and I never wanted energy. What do you understand by energy? asked her examiners. The sentiment, she replied, by which those are animated, who, casting from them all thought of their interest as individuals, know how to offer themselves up as sacrifices for their country.

Of course, after such an act as she had committed, her fate was sealed. She appeared for the first time before the revolutionary tribunal on the 16th; when nothing could exceed the self-possession of her demeanor, and the lofty indifference with which she regarded the violent death to which she was so soon to be surrendered. This unfortunate woman, notwithstanding her exaggerated patriotism, appears to have possessed a nature in many respects nobly endowed, and even a heart susceptible of the tenderest affections. In a letter which she wrote from her prison to Barbaroux, whom she had known at Caen, she says, "I have never hated but one being on earth, and him with what intensity I have sufficiently shown; but there are a thousand whom I love still more than I

hated him." "A lively imagination," she goes on, "and a feeling heart, promise but a stormy life; I beseech those who might regret me to consider this, and they will rejoice to know that I am enjoying repose in the Elysian fields with Brutus and others of the ancients." She addressed a short note, on the day before her execution, to her father, in which, after having asked his forgiveness for having disposed of her life without his permission, she adds, "I pray you to forget me, or rather to rejoice in my fate; the cause, at least, in which I perish is a noble one. I embrace my sisters, whom I love with my whole heart, as likewise all my relations. Never forget the verse of Corneille:

'Le crime fait la honte, et non pas l'échafaud.'"

The heroine, when her last hour was come, shrunk from her fate no more than she had previously done. Before setting out for the place of execution, she asked with a smile of scorn whether the body of Marat was to be deposited in the Pantheon. Such was the imposing dignity of her demeanor as she passed along on her way, that even the abandoned rabble who were wont to flock around the guillotine, and disturb with their ferocious howls the last moments of its victims, were on this occasion awed into comparative silence; and some of the more respectable spectators took off their hats at her approach, while murmurs of applause and sympathy broke from others, which all their fears for themselves could not restrain. She mounted the scaffold with a firm step. When the executioner proceeded to tie her hands, a part of the ceremony for which she was unprepared, she at first manifested a disposition to resist the attempt, imagining that some insult was intended her; but, on the matter being explained, she smiled at her mistake, and offered no farther opposition. When she had laid her head on the block, the executioner removed a handkerchief that covered her neck and shoulders; and on this those who stood around her remarked that a quick instinct of modesty instantly suffused her cheeks with a deep blush. The mounted blood still reddened her visage when the head, after being separated from the body, was held up by the executioner to the view of the multitude.

SENSE OF SMELL IN INSECTS.

In bees, the odor of honey produces the most obvious influence. Mr. John Hunter mentions that he has seen great commotion produced in a recent swarm, in wet weather, when he supposed the bees to have been hungry, by placing honey on the floor of a glass hive, which gave him a good opportunity of observing their proceedings. All of them appeared to be eagerly on the scent, and even those which were weak and hardly able to crawl, threw out their tongues as far as possible to get at the honey. The elder Huber instituted some experiments still more interesting.

"In order," he says, "to ascertain whether the appearance of the flowers or the odor of the honey apprises bees of its presence, we placed honey in a window, near a hive, where the shutters, almost close, still permitted them to pass if they wished. Within a quarter of an hour four bees and a butterfly had insinuated themselves, and we found them feeding thereon. For the purpose of a still more accurate experiment, I had four boxes, different in

* The crime and not the scaffold makes the shame.

size, shape, and color, made with small card shutters, corresponding to apertures in the covering. Honey being put into them, they were placed at the distance of two hundred paces from my apiary. In half an hour bees were seen trooping thither, and by carefully traversing the boxes, they soon discovered the openings through which they might introduce their bodies, and, pressing against the valves reached the honey.

We have frequently observed with much interest the method taken by various species of bees to open the flower of the common snapdragon. Resting upon the lower lip of the flower, the insect insinuates its tongue between the upper lip and the valve, and then thrusting in its head, acts with it as a wedge to force the shut edges asunder. In this manner it speedily accomplishes an entrance, and the flower shuts over it with a *snap*; hence, perhaps, the popular name. When the bee has obtained the honey at the bottom of the flower, it makes its exit in the same way as it entered.



Snapdragon, and Bees entering the flowers.

REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY OF NATURE.

BY LINNEUS.

I know not what to think of those people who can, without emotion, hear or read the accounts of the many wonderful animals which inhabit foreign countries.

What principally strikes us agreeably at first sight, is color; of which the good and great Creator has given to some animals a rich variety, far beyond the reach of human art. Scarcely any thing can equal the beauty of birds in general; particularly the splendor of the Peacock.

The Author of Nature has frequently decorated even the minutest insects, and worms themselves, which inhabit the bottom of the sea, in so exquisite a manner, that the most polished metal looks dull beside them. The great golden beetle of the Indies has its head studded with ornaments like precious stones, brilliant as the finest gold; and the *Aphrodisia Aculeata*, reflecting the sunbeams from the

depths of the sea, exhibits as vivid colors as the peacock itself, when spreading its jewelled train.

The difference of size, in different animals, must strike us with no less astonishment; especially if we compare the huge whale with the almost invisible mite; the former, while it shakes the largest ships with its bulky body, is itself a prey to the diminutive *Onisci*, and is obliged to have recourse to the sea birds, who, sitting on its back, free it from these vermin.

We are as much amazed at the prodigious strength of the elephant and rhinoceros, as we are pleased with the slender deer of Guinea, which is, in all its parts, like our deer, but scarcely so large as the smallest lap-dog. Nature has, however, in the nimbleness of its feet, abundantly compensated this animal for the smallness of its size.

The Great Ostriches of Arabia, whose wings are insufficient to raise their bulky body from the ground, excite no less admiration than the little humming-birds of India, hardly bigger than beetles, which feed on the honey of flowers, like bees and flies, and, like those insects, are the prey of ordinary spiders; between which, and the large spider of Brazil, there is as much difference in size, as between the humming-bird and the ostrich. This great spider often attacks the largest birds, dropping on their backs, by means of its web, from the branches of trees; and while they vainly seek for security in flight, it bites them in such a manner that they not unfrequently fall lifeless to the ground.

The singular figures of some animals cannot fail to attract our notice. We wonder, with reason, at the angular appendage to the nose of the American bat: nor is the short and slender upper mandible, or jaw, of the Indian woodpecker less remarkable; the form of the latter being as unusual among birds, as is among fishes the figure of the American fishing-frog, which is furnished with feet, but cannot walk; while another kind of fish, when the rivulet which it inhabits, becomes dry, has a power of travelling over land, till it finds more copious streams.

The plaice, the sole, and many other fishes, although the only animals which have both eyes on the same side of the head, do not, perhaps, astonish us so much, being common fishes, as the horned frog of Virginia, whose head is furnished with a pair of horns, at the extremities of which its eyes are placed; its stern aspect cannot fail to strike with horror all who behold it. This frog is unable, however, to move its eyes in different directions at the same time, like the chameleon, which appears to have a power of contemplating at once many distant objects, and of attending equally to all: for this animal certainly does not live on air, as many have reported, but on flies, which it follows with its piercing and sparkling eyes, till it has got so near them, that by darting forth its long tongue, they are instantly caught and swallowed. While the slender ant-bear, which has no teeth, and which the Creator has appointed to live on ants alone, by coiling up its tongue like a serpent, and laying it near an ant hill, collects the little animals, and devours them entire.

He who has given life to animals, has given them all different means of supporting it; for, if all birds were to fly in the same manner, all fishes to swim with the same velocity, and all quadrupeds to run with equal swiftness, there would soon be an end of the weaker ones.

THE FIRST OF MARCH.

The bud, is in the bough
And the leaf is in the bud,
And Earth's beginning now
In her veins to feel the blood,
Which, warmed by summer's sun
In th' alembic of the vine,
From her founts will overrun
In a ruddy gush of wine.

The perfume and the bloom
That shall decorate the flower,
Are quickening in the gloom
Of their subterranean bower;
And the juices meant to feed
Trees, vegetables, fruits,
Unerringly proceed
To their pre-appointed roots.

How awful the thought
Of the wonders under ground,
Of the mystic changes wrought
In the silent, dark profound;
How each thing upward tends
By necessity decreed,
And a world's support depends
On the shooting of a seed!

The Summer's in her ark,
And this sunny-pinioned day
Is commissioned to remark
Whether Winter holds her sway;
Go back, thou dove of peace,
With the myrtle on thy wing,
Say that floods and tempests cease,
And the world is ripe for Spring.

Thou hast fanned the sleeping Earth
Till her dreams are all of flowers,
And the waters look in mirth
For their overhanging bowers;
The forest seems to listen
For the rustle of its leaves,
And the very skies to glisten
In the hope of summer even.

Thy vivifying spell
Has been felt beneath the wave,
By the dormouse in its cell,
And the mole within its cave;
And the summer tribes that creep,
Or in air expand their wing,
Have started from their sleep,
At the summons of the Spring.

The cattle lift their voices
From the valleys and the hills,
And the feathered race rejoices
With a gush of tuneful bills;
And if this cloudless arch
Fills the poet's song with glee,
O thou sunny first of March,
Be it dedicate to thee!

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VOL. I.



LOWELL.

Lowell, the American Manchester, is situated at the confluence of Merrimack and Concord rivers, twenty-five miles northwest from Boston. This town received its name from Francis C. Lowell of Boston, who was distinguished by his successful efforts in introducing the cotton manufacture into the United States. The place is undoubtedly destined to be a great manufacturing city.

The growth of Lowell for a few years past has been almost unparalleled. The foundation of the second factory was laid here in 1822, at which time, the land now included in the town, exclusive of one factory establishment, contained less than one hundred inhabitants.

It may not be uninteresting to our readers to learn the state of the manufactures of cotton and woollen goods in Lowell at the present time. We are indebted to the Journal of that place for the following statistical remarks:

"The whole amount of capital at present invested, is \$6,150,000. The number of large mills in actual operation is nineteen. These mills are each about one hundred and fifty-seven feet in length and forty-five in breadth—of brick, five stories high, each story averaging from ten to thirteen feet high, thus giving opportunity for a free circulation of air. The aggregate number of spindles used is 84,000—looms 3000. The whole number of operatives employed is about 5000, of which 1200 are males, 3800 are females. The quantity of raw cotton, used in these mills per annum, exceeds 8,000,000 pounds or 20,000 bales. The number of yards of cotton goods of various qualities

manufactured annually is about 27,000,000. Were the different pieces united, they would reach to the distance of 15,300 miles! In this estimate is included about 2,000,000 yards of coarse mixed cotton and woollen negro clothing, in the manufacture of which about 80,000 pounds of wool are used per annum.

"The quantity of wool, manufactured annually into cassimeres, is about 150,000 pounds, making about 150,000 yards.

"The Lowell Carpet Manufactory is in itself a curiosity. Sixty-eight looms are kept in operation by hand labor, viz: fifty for ingrained or Kidderminster carpeting, ten for Brussels, and eight for rugs of various kinds. One hundred and forty thousand pounds of wool in the course of a year are manufactured into rich and beautiful carpets, the colors of which will vie with any imported. The number of yards of carpeting made per annum is upwards of one hundred and twenty thousand, besides rugs. The operatives at present employed in all these mills receive for their labor about one million two hundred thousand dollars per annum.

"The Lawrence Company has now but one mill in operation. One other is erected which will be in operation in a short time. The foundations of two others are laid which will be ready to go into operation in the course of this year, (1833). These mills will contain about 16,500 additional spindles for cotton, and 550 looms, and will use 2,500,000 lbs. of raw cotton annually, furnishing employment for 700 operatives. These three mills will proba-

bly be the means of adding at least one thousand five hundred to the population of Lowell.

The Middlesex Company has lately erected another mill, for the manufacture of cassimeres and broadcloths, which is said to be one of the first manufacturing edifices in the United States. It is one hundred and fifty-three feet in length, by forty-six, and six stories high. Nearly one million of bricks have been used in its construction. It contains 2,880 spindles, and sixty-four looms for cassimeres, and forty for broad cloths. It works up about 300,000 lbs. of wool annually, and employs about two hundred and seventy-five operatives.

"The edifice, in which all the machinery employed in the mills is manufactured, is termed the 'Machine Shop,' belonging to the Locks and Canal Company, and is probably the largest 'shop' in the country, being built of brick, four stories high, two hundred and twenty feet in length and forty-five feet in width. About two hundred machinists, some of them the most skilful and ingenious workmen in the United States, or in the world, are constantly employed. About six hundred tons of cast and wrought iron, two-thirds of which at least are of American production, are annually converted into machinery, besides a large quantity of imported steel.

"It is computed that upwards of five thousand tons of Anthracite coal are annually consumed in the Lowell Manufacturing establishments and Machine Shop, besides immense quantities of charcoal and pine and hard wood fuel."

The great water-power is produced by a canal a mile and a half long, sixty feet wide, and eight feet deep from its commencement above the head of Pawtucket falls on the Merrimack, to its termination in Concord river. The entire fall is thirty-two feet. The water is taken from this canal by smaller canals, and conveyed to the factories, and thence into the Merrimack. There are room and water-power sufficient for fifty huge additional factories. In the suburbs of Lowell, near the canal is a settlement called New Dublin, which occupies upwards of an acre of ground. It contains not far from five hundred Irish people, and about one hundred cabins, from seven to ten feet high, built of slabs and rough boards, with a fireplace made of stones topped out with several flour barrels or lime casks.

There is a canal round the falls of the Merrimack, ninety feet wide and four deep; which however is no longer used for boat navigation. On the Concord river, about one mile from the town, are powder-works, at which powder of a very superior quality is made. Thirty thousand kegs, containing twenty-five pounds each, are made annually. Lowell communicates with Boston by means of the Middlesex canal, and a railroad between the two places has for many months been in progress.

By the census of 1830, the population of Lowell was 6,474; it is now probably nearer eleven thousand. The number of newspapers issued at present, is, we believe, seven.

The engraving at the head of this article affords a view of a part of the canal and some of the principal buildings connected with the manufactories of this flourishing town. The sketch was taken by Mr. Martins, an artist of first rate abilities, who has recently established himself in Boston. If Lowell continues to increase at the rate, which has thus far marked its progress, the next census may find it with a population of more than thirty thousand inhabitants.

THE HORN OF THE ALPS.

The Horn of the shepherds of the Alps is chiefly known among us by the accounts we have heard of the effect of its wild mountain music, in calling in the cattle from their pastures; but it is also used for a more noble purpose, namely, as a signal for the performance of a solemn and religious ceremony.

When the sun has quitted the valley, and his lingering beams still cast a glow of fading light on the snowy summits of the mountains, the shepherd whose hut is placed on the highest mountain peak, takes his horn, and pronounces through it, as through a speaking trumpet, the solemn injunction to the world below,—"Praise ye the Lord." Every shepherd in the neighborhood, as he catches the sound, repeats, in succession, the same sentence at the door of his cabin. Thus, perhaps, for a quarter of an hour, the cliffs and rocky precipices fling to each other the oft-repeated echoes of the sublime "Praise ye the Lord." A solemn stillness succeeds the last reverberation, and all kneel, bare-headed and in silent devotion. When darkness rests on the earth, and veils the towering mountains, the horn again sounds, and a peaceful, social "Good night" is pronounced; this is repeated from rock and cliff, till the distant echoes melt away, and the shepherds then retire to the peaceful cabins.

C. M.



EARLY BRITONS.

The winter residences of the early Britons were either natural caves, or places deeply hollowed into the earth by manual labor; some of which are still to be seen in Cornwall and the Hebrides. Their summer habitations were slight and easily removed, and their towns were only tracts of forest land surrounded by a sort of rampart of earth, with a ditch below it. Within these enclosures, their simple structures were formed of the branches of trees roughly woven, or wattled together, and daubed over with clay. In this sort of work they were doubtless well skilled: even their refined conquerors admired the British baskets, which were exported to Rome in large quantities, and were so highly prized there, that more than a hundred years after the time of which we are now speaking, a celebrated Roman satirical poet ranks them among the extravagant luxuries of his countrymen. Their boats, also, were formed of similar material; for, although living in an island, they had no better

vessels than baskets covered with the skins of beasts; and in these frail barks they sometimes ventured to cross the Irish Channel, and to pass over to their neighbors the Gauls, who inhabited the country now named France.

The ancient Britons were almost wholly without clothing, or only partially covered with the hides of animals; like all savage nations they delighted in ornament, and they adorned even the skin of their bodies with various strange devices. This indulgence of vanity was hardly earned, and purchased by considerable personal suffering. Like the tattooing of modern uncivilized tribes, figures of animals, of plants, and of any other object which fancy dictated or fashion prescribed, were traced on the flesh by means of innumerable punctures inflicted by an instrument full of small sharp teeth; and the wounded parts being stained with the juice of a native plant called woad (still in common use with our dyers,) became, when healed, of an indelibly blue color.

The British food consisted chiefly of flesh and milk; in the southern part of the country some attempts at agriculture were perceptible, and the inhabitants exhibited some faint signs of civilization. This superiority is to be attributed to the traffic carried on with that coast by ships from various parts of the world, and to intercourse with the neighboring shores of Gaul. The wild islanders, however, were not much benefited by these visitors, who bartered articles of small utility, or of mere ornament, for their most valuable commodities; and who, while they were thus unconsciously contributing to the improvement of our countrymen, gave the most frightful accounts of their ferocity and ignorance, when they travelled to other lands, or returned to their own.

We may readily conceive that the blessings of a bounteous Providence were frequently converted into evils, by a people so uncivilized, and that the best gifts of Nature were of but doubtful advantage. The rich and prolific soil exhausted itself in wild and encumbering luxuriance; the plains were barren; the valleys impassable; the springs choked at their sources, and the rivers overflowing their banks, formed vast tracts of unprofitable and unwholesome marshes. Woods covered the face of the greater part of the country; one forest named Anderida, is stated to have been a hundred and twenty miles in length, and although the beasts of prey were limited to a single species, that species was suffered to breed and to harbor almost without molestation.

The people were as uncultivated as their country; coarse, wild, and ferocious, with all the evil passions of their nature permitted, like the wolves of their forests, to riot without curb or restriction. The absence of moral law produced its usual effects upon the human character, and the boasted liberty of the early Britons was but a license to sin with impunity. Their religious worship, far from softening or improving their minds, evinced its unholy origin, by producing effects of a directly opposite nature. The gloomy and terrific superstition taught by the Druid-priests led its votaries to temples formed of vast unhewn masses of stone, in the deep recesses of consecrated groves, or the lonely silence of wide extended plains. From the altars raised within these singular edifices, the steam of human offerings frequently ascended, as a grateful and pleasant sacrifice to Deities who delighted in blood; and if the Briton spared the captive taken

by his hand in battle, it was only to yield him, bound and helpless, as a victim to the sacrificing knife of the Druid; or, enclosed alive in a cage of basket-work, to be slowly consumed amid the flames of the altar.

Such was merry England, "the gallant, the



courteous, and the free," when the Roman galleys were first seen approaching her shores fifty-five years before the birth of our Saviour.

ON THE GROWTH OF PLANTS.

The astonishing power with which God has endowed the vegetable creation to multiply its different species, may be instanced in the seed of the elm. This tree produces one thousand five hundred and eighty four millions of seeds; and each of these seeds has the power of producing the same number. How astonishing is this produce! At first one seed is deposited in the earth; from this one, a tree springs, which in the course of its vegetable life produces one thousand five hundred and eighty millions of seeds. This is the first generation. The second generation will amount to two trillions five hundred and ten thousand and fifty-six billions. The third generation will amount to fourteen thousand six hundred and fifty-eight quadrillions, seven hundred and twenty-seven thousand and forty trillions. And the fourth generation will amount to fifty-one sextillions, four hundred and eighty-one thousand three hundred and eighty-one quintillions, one hundred and twenty-three thousand one hundred and thirty-six quadrillions! Sums too immense for the human mind to conceive; and when we allow the most confined space in which a tree can grow, it appears that the seeds of the third generation from one elm would be many myriads of times more than sufficient to stock the whole superficies of all the planets in the solar system!

Thistles multiply enormously: a species called the *carolia sylvestris* bears ordinarily from twenty to forty heads, each containing from one hundred to one hundred and fifty seeds. Another species called the *acanthum vulgare*, produces above one hundred heads, each containing from three hundred to four hundred seeds. Suppose we say that these thistles produce, on a medium, only eighty heads, and that each contains only three hundred seeds;

the first crop from these would amount to twenty-four thousand. Let these be sown, and their crop will amount to five hundred and seventy-six millions. Sow these, and their produce will be thirteen billions, eight hundred and twenty-four thousand millions; and a single crop from these, which is only the third year's growth, would amount to three hundred and thirty-one thousand seven hundred and seventy-six billions; and the fourth years' growth will amount to seven thousand nine hundred and sixty two trillions six hundred and twenty four thousand billions;—a progeny more than sufficient to stock not only the surface of the world, but of all the planets in the solar system, so that no other plant or vegetable could possibly grow, allowing but the space of one square foot for each plant.—*Dr. Adam Clarke.*

MARTYRDOM OF ST. VINCENT, A SPANISH MARTYR.

This Christian hero was a native of Saragossa, and the son of a distinguished magistrate. His learning and eloquence early introduced him to the notice of his diocesan Valerius, whose deacon he became; and as that prelate was afflicted with an impediment in speaking, on him devolved the duty of addressing the congregation from the episcopal seat. His popularity reached the ear of Dacian, who summoned both bishop and deacon before him, and who committed both, heavily fettered, to the dark dungeons of Valencia. Having passed some time in this horrible abode, with food scarcely sufficient to sustain life, both were again brought before the tyrant, who, on observing their cheerful countenances, which exhibited no marks of suffering, angrily demanded of the guards whether they had not disobeyed his commands. On hearing that his orders had been punctually performed, he artfully endeavored to seduce by an affected moderation those on whom severity had produced no visible effect. He exhorted them to comply with the decrees of the world's great masters, who insisted that the dignity of the ancient worship should be restored, and the gods every where honored by sacrifices.

Valerius attempted to reply, but seeing his embarrassed utterance, his young friend said:—"Father, dost thou permit me to answer this judge?" The other replied, "My son, I have long trusted thee with the office of speaking, and I leave thee now to justify the faith for which we are standing here." In a discourse of surprising energy and eloquence, the deacon then vindicated the unity of God, and the divinity of Christ, and contrasted the sublimity of the doctrines he professed with the puerile absurdities of paganism. He concluded by asserting that entreaties no less than menaces would be unable to make them guilty of idolatry.

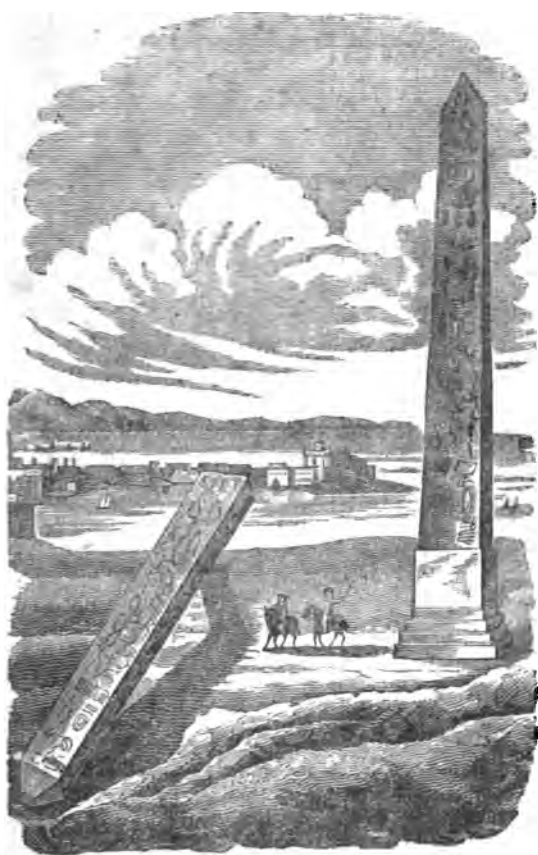
The intrepidity of the advocate filled Dacian with fury. "Let this bishop," he exclaimed, "be removed hence; as he has disobeyed the imperial edict, he is justly exiled: but for this fellow, who to disobedience adds insult, a heavier punishment is reserved. Apply the torture; dislocate his limbs, and let him feel a rebel's punishment." The order was promptly obeyed, and Dacian had both the gratification to witness, and the barbarity to deride, the agonies of the sufferer. The latter, whose cheek blanched not, and whose lips uttered not one word of complaint, regarding his persecutor with

that calm composure which proved that his heaven was already begun, merely replied,—"I have always wished for an opportunity of proving my attachment to the religion of Christ; thou hast given it me, and I am content." Mad with rage, the governor struck the executioners because they could not force a single groan from their victim. "What!" exclaimed the sufferer, with the most provoking coolness, "dost thou too wish to avenge me of these brutal men?" Dacian now foamed at the mouth, and roared, rather than spoke, to them,—"Cannot you extort one cry of pain from this man, ye who have so often bent the most stubborn malefactors? Is he thus to triumph over us?" Sharper instruments were now brought, the flesh of the Christian was torn from his bones, and his whole body represented the appearance of one vast wound. For a moment even the savage Dacian was, or appeared to be, softened. "Young Christian," said he, "hast thou no pity for thyself? In the flower of thine age canst thou not be persuaded to avoid a horrible death by one act of submission?" "Thy feigned sympathy," replied the other with the same unshaken tranquillity, "affects me as little as the exquisite torments thou causest me to feel. I will not deny my Maker for thy idols of wood and stone. Thy perseverance will fail sooner than my constancy."

The victim was next laid on an iron bed, the surface of which was covered with sharp projecting points, and a slow fire placed under it. His body was pressed against the spikes, boiling liquids were poured into his wounds; his bones were crushed by blows with iron bars: in short, every species of torture was employed that hellish cunning could devise. Still the heroic sufferer murmured not. At length, his mangled limbs having been dashed on a bed of sharp flints, he felt that the moment of his deliverance was at hand. In vain did the tyrant order him to be laid on a comfortable couch, and every effort made to restore him, that, on his recovery, human ingenuity might be taxed for the invention of new torments: in a few hours he expired. His corpse was carried out to sea, and plunged into the waves: it was soon washed on shore, was found by some Christians, and secretly buried. The report of his superhuman constancy was rapidly spread throughout Christendom; and in the time of St. Augustine his festival was celebrated in every Christian place.—*Lardner's Cyclopedia.*

Turnip-Bread.—A very good bread may be made of turnips, by the following process: Let the turnips be washed clean, pared, and boiled; when they are soft enough for being mashed, the greater part of the water should be pressed out of them, and they should then be mixed with an equal quantity in weight of coarse wheat flour. The dough may then be made in the usual manner, with yeast or barm, salt, water, &c. It will rise well in the trough, and after being well kneaded, may be formed into loaves and put into the oven. It requires to be baked rather longer than ordinary bread, and when taken from the oven is equally light and white, rather sweeter, with a slight but not disagreeable taste of the turnip. After it has been allowed to stand twelve hours, this taste is scarcely perceptible, and the smell is quite gone. After an interval of twenty-four hours it cannot be known that it has turnip in its composition, although it has still a peculiar sweetish taste. It appears to be rather superior to bread made only of wheat flour—is fresh and moister, and even after a week continues good.

Moderate your Desires.—Take away your expensive follies, and you will have little occasion to complain of hard times.



Obelisks with hieroglyphics at Alexandria.

ART OF WRITING.

The art of writing is of great importance; it conveys our thoughts to others by certain marks or representations: there are several methods by which it was practised in former times, and in later days. One method, used by some Indians and other untaught nations, is a kind of picture writing, or drawing, to represent the things which the writer desires to tell to others. The Rev. T. H. Horne, in a work which he has written about books, copies a drawing of this sort made by some North American Indians, which represents one of their expeditions against their enemies. Similar drawings of the ancient Mexicans have been copied by other authors. Another sort of picture writing, probably an improvement on that just mentioned, was much used by the Egyptians; it is called hieroglyphic writing. The first sort of picture writing only represents things, but this represents ideas or thoughts. For instance, an eye represented God, who sees all things; a sword, a cruel tyrant; an eye and sceptre, a king; a lion represented courage; armies were meant by hands with weapons. There are cards and books to amuse children, with pictures or hieroglyphics, not unlike the sorts of writing I have just mentioned.

An inscription on a temple in Egypt, expressing this moral sentence, "All you, who come into the world and go out of it, know this—that the gods hate impudence;" was represented by an infant, an old man, a hawk, a fish, and a river horse. It is thought by some persons, that, from this way of representing religious and moral truths by pictures of animals, the ancient Egyptians came to worship the animals themselves; as the introducing images, or paintings, into churches, led the papists to wor-

ship them. Several obelisks, or high pillars, in Egypt, are covered with this sort of writing; see the representation of two famous ones at Alexandria, called Cleopatra's needles, at the beginning of this article; they are a hundred feet in height, upwards of seven feet square at the base. The four sides of both are richly adorned with hieroglyphics, cut an inch deep in the granite stone.

INDIGO.

The real nature of indigo was not generally known in Europe, until a long period after it had been obtained direct from India, the country of its production; and many erroneous notions existed as to its nature at a comparatively recent period. In the letters patent granted to the proprietors of mines in the principality of Halberstadt, not many centuries ago, indigo was classed among the minerals, to obtain which the works were permitted to be erected.

Marco Polo, indeed, who flourished in the thirteenth century, and who is the earliest European traveller into China and India on record, relates that he saw indigo made in the kingdom of Coulan, and describes the process by which it was prepared. "Indigo," says the old Venetian, "of excellent quality and large quantities, is made here (Coulan.) They procure it from an herbaceous plant, which is taken up by the roots and put into tubs of water, where it is suffered to remain till it rots, when they press out the juice. This, upon being exposed to the sun and evaporated, leaves a kind of paste, which is cut into small pieces of the form in which we see it brought to us." This passage of the Italian ought at least to have prevented the Germans from considering the product as a mineral, which they were to seek in the bowels of the earth; but illiberal ignorance had thrown discredit on Marco Polo and ranked him among those travellers whose lies were proverbial. At two other places in India, Guzzerat and Kambaia, Marco speaks of indigo as an article of extensive manufacture. Much curious information in regard to the trade in this article at the middle of the fourteenth century is contained in the works of Francesco Balducci Pegolotti. At that time indigo was imported in leather bags and in chests, in the same manner as at present. Although for more than two thousand years its value had been recognised in Asia, still its use was either prohibited or restrained for a considerable period in different European countries, under the erroneous belief that its color was fugitive.

It was not until after the discovery of America that indigo was obtained in any very large quantities in Europe. The plant from which it is prepared was found growing wild in most of the tropical parts of the western hemisphere. Its application was likewise well known. We learn from the authority of more than one traveller, that the Aztecs, the unfortunate aborigines of Mexico, were well aware of its value as a dye, and that it was commonly employed by them in giving a beautiful hue to their cotton fabrics. During the last century the cultivation of indigo has been almost entirely neglected by the Spanish Mexicans, from the preference given in Europe to the indigo of Guatemala, or central America, and the failure of the native cotton manufacture in which it was principally used. Since the Mexicans have shaken off the Spanish yoke their commercial and agricultural prosperity has

become a subject of more rational interest and attention. Attempts are now therefore being made to revive, among other branches of industry, the cultivation of indigo. A little is now grown on the western coasts, and it has been introduced into the valley of Cuautla. In some parts, which are hot and marshy, it is a natural production of the soil.

The indigo of Guatemala was long prized as the best, and although this plant was cultivated in the West Indies and other parts of America, none ever approached the excellence of that of Guatemala, which was long rated in commerce as of unrivalled quality. This plant was much cultivated in the French West-India islands, and the government of the parent country took so great interest in its improvement as to appoint scientific men to investigate its preparation and to point out in what manner it was susceptible of improvement. It does not appear, however, that these exertions were attended with any very beneficial results, and although much was suggested, perhaps no real, certainly no very important, improvements were introduced in the mode of preparing indigo. That prepared by the French still ranked lower, though next in quality to the produce of Guatemala.

This plant was for some time cultivated in great abundance in Jamaica, forming one of its principal articles of exportation; but a tax having been laid upon it, the culture of sugar became a more profitable branch of agriculture. *Indigofera* was found growing spontaneously in Carolina in the year 1747, and so abundantly that 200,000 lbs. were shipped to England, and sold at a very good price, though it was not quite so well prepared as the French indigo; its farther cultivation in North America has not, however, been very extensively prosecuted.

In the year 1787 another source for the supply of indigo was opened by the French, who then began to import cotton and indigo from their settlement at Goree, on the coast of Africa. This dye was pronounced by the English dyers to be almost equal to that of Guatemala, and superior to every kind of West-India indigo.

Indigo from America was for a long period very superior to that obtained from the East; and although this dyeing ingredient was recognised in commerce as coming from the East Indies, it was imported thence in small quantities, and of so indifferent a quality, as not in any way to compete with the western production. Scarcely twenty years ago, this was the relative position of the indigos from America and Asia. Since then the judicious and spirited exertions of a few enlightened individuals have shown that by careful cultivation and preparation its character might be essentially improved in the British possessions in India. At the present day this article ranks among the most important objects of our commerce with the East Indies, while its quality has been raised far above that received from South America.

The seed is sowed in little furrows about the breadth of the hoe, and two or three inches in depth. These furrows are made a foot apart from each other, and in as straight a line as possible. A bushel of seed is sufficient for five acres of land. Though it may be sown in all seasons, spring is mostly preferred for the purpose. Soon after sowing, continual attention is required to pluck the weeds, which would quickly choke up the plant, and impede its growth. Sufficient moisture causes it to shoot above the surface in three or four days,

and it is usually fit for gathering at the end of two months. When it begins to flower, it is cut with a



Slaves gathering Indigo.

sickle a few inches above its roots. The ratoons, or subsequent growth from the same plant, ripen in six or eight weeks. Sometimes four crops are obtained in one year from the same roots; but in North America and other parts where the heat of the sun is less fervid, the cultivator obtains but two, or perhaps only one crop. The produce diminishes fast after the second cutting, and therefore it is said to be absolutely necessary to sow the seeds afresh every year, or every two years at farthest.

The coloring matter is obtained from the whole plant. There are two modes used for its extraction—it is fermented, or it is scalded. The first method is universally practised in South America and the West Indies; and almost wholly by the English factors in the East.

If dried hastily in the sun it is apt to become brittle. When all moisture is expelled, and the substance is quite solid, it is cut into square cakes. The process is not yet, however, completed. If exported in this state it would speedily become mouldy; a second fermentation is therefore necessary. To produce this the cakes are heaped in a cask and simply suffered to remain there for about three weeks. During this time they undergo a degree of fermentation; they become heated, moisture exudes from the surface, a most disagreeable odor is emitted, and finally the cakes are covered with a fine white meal. They are then taken out and dried in the shade for five or six days, when they are in a fit state to be packed for exportation.

NO CEREMONY.

If you were to search society, you would find nine out of every ten profess their utter dislike of all ceremony. Take them at their own word, they are the most downright, unaffected people in the world; but see them in the practice of life, and they turn out to be as full of airs, and as much offended at any little omission of the punctilious homage due to themselves as may be. It seems as if we were under a constant wish to get back to nature and simplicity, but as constantly checked in every effort to that effect, by the powerful bonds which a state

of society has imposed. We would all fain be the easy, pleasant, happy children which we think we once were, instead of the cold, artificial, heartless beings which we think we now are. But, in feeling thus, we forget that when we were children sporting with each other, we were perpetually giving and receiving offence, from rudeness of behavior among ourselves—in other words, from the want of a conventional system of respectful manners—and that thus we were often the most unhappy wretches in the world, frequently snarling at each other, sometimes getting sound thrashings from our offended companions, and sometimes giving them, perhaps for very little fault; and, in general, only prevented from being rude and riotous, nay, sometimes, from being rank spoilers and oppressors, by the fear of punishment from a stronger hand.

If the world were only gratified in its general desire of abjuring ceremony for one day, by way of experiment, it would soon, I apprehend, find the necessity of returning to a decent degree of affectation. Suppose a respectable gentleman going abroad that morning, full of the idea of doing all kinds of things in an easy way, as he used to do when a boy. He sees an old school-fellow a little way before him on the street, and, thinking it a good joke, runs up and knocks the hat off his head, making it spin far into the highway, and then turns about and laughs in the face of the injured party. The *jokee*, however, has a different idea of the matter from the *joker*; and whereas in school-boy days it would have been settled by a slight pomeling, rendering them rather sulky with each other for a day or two, nothing less will serve in these rational days of adolescence, than a regular interchange of shots at each other, at the distance of twelve or nine paces, as the case may be.

Suppose two ladies, intimate friends, meeting on the street. One admires the other's bonnet immensely, and, as might have happened long ago in the case of a pretty cap for a doll, she endeavors to snatch it from her friend's head. The other, however, defends her property at the point of the parasol, and the end of the joke is, that the two are taken to the police office. Suppose a dinner party meeting in the afternoon of this unceremonious day; if the day has lasted so long without a return to good breeding. Instead of each gentleman conducting a lady to the dining-room, which is a horrid piece of affectation, the whole male sex goes trooping off, in an easy candid way, leaving the women to come trotting after. Of course, the respect of the men for the women is not increased by seeing them come in at the door pell-mell like a drove of sheep; and, therefore, there is the less disposition to accommodate them with seats, or to serve them with food. The fair part of the company soon become quite indignant at the men, and attack them with all the virulence of the ancient harpies. A scene ensues which there is no describing. The greatest confusion prevails. There is a squabbling of tongues enough to deafen Babel or Billingsgate. The air is darkened with flying plates and candlesticks. At last, within ten minutes after the ringing of the dinner bell, the ladies are seen pouring out of the house like enraged bedlamites, some with their bonnets and shawls, and more without them, and the want of a little ceremony is found to have

“—broke up this mirth, marred this good meeting,
With most admired disorder.”

In every department and contingency of life, the

same results are experienced, so that before night the human race at large seems as if it were about to revert to the savage state.



Nest of the Tchitrec.

ARCHITECTURE OF BIRDS.

One of the prettiest of the woven bird's nests is figured and described by Vaillant in his splendid work on African birds; though he is doubtful what species of bird was the mechanic. The following is his account of this beautiful nest.

“It is, I believe,” says he, “the nest of the tchitrec; for though I have never captured the bird of this species on the nest, and am not therefore certain of the fact, my good Klaas, a faithful if not a profound observer, assured me that it was. In one of our journeys through a wood of mimosas, in the country of the Caffres, he discovered and brought me this nest, having seen, he said, and particularly observed a male and female tchitrec occupied in constructing it. It is remarkable for its peculiar form, bearing a strong resemblance to a small horn, suspended, with the point downwards, between two branches. Its greatest diameter was two inches and a half, and gradually diminishing towards the base. It would be difficult to explain the principle upon which such a nest had been built, particularly as three-fourths of it appeared to be entirely useless and idly made; for the part which was to contain the eggs, and which was alone indispensable, was not more than three inches from the surface. All the rest of this edifice, which was a tissue closely and laboriously woven of slender threads taken from the bark of certain shrubs, seemed to be totally useless. The interior of the nest was not furnished with any sort of soft material, such as down, wool, or hair, but as the female had not laid her eggs when Klaas brought it to me, it is probable that the nest was not quite finished; a fact indeed proved by the birds being still at work at the time.”

BON MOR.—The late Dr. Barclay was a wit and a scholar, as well as a very great physiologist. When a happy illustration, or even a point of pretty broad humor, occurred to his mind, he hesitated not to

apply it to the subject in hand; and in this way he frequently roused and rivetted attention, when more abstract reasoning might have failed of its aim. On one occasion he happened to dine in a large party, composed chiefly of medical men. As the wine cup circulated, the conversation accidentally took a professional turn, and from the excitation of the moment, or some other cause, two of the youngest individuals present were the most forward in delivering their opinions. Sir James Mackintosh once told a political opponent, that so far from following his example of using hard words and soft arguments, he would pass, if possible, into the oppo-

site extreme, and use soft words and hard arguments. But our unfledged M.D.'s disregarded the above salutary maxim, and made up in loudness what they wanted in learning. At length, one of them said something so emphatic—we mean as to manner—that a pointer dog started from his lair beneath the table, and *bow-wow-wowed* so fiercely that he fairly took the lead in the discussion. Dr. Barclay eyed the hairy dialectician, and thinking it high time to close the debate, gave the animal a hearty push with his foot, and exclaimed, in good broad Scotch,—“Lie still, ye brute; for I am sure ye ken just as little about it as any o’ them.”

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